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ABSTRACT

Intended to serve as a handbook for the principal of the small school, this volume presents a collection of 38 articles about small schools that have appeared in the National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin during the past 7 years. An introduction explores the basic concept of size as it relates to schools. Five chapters group articles under the topics: "Leadership: Providing a Direction for Learning," "Management: Creating a Climate for Learning," "Instruction: Improving Classroom Learning," "Teachers: Supporting Better Learning," and "Students: Promoting Expectations for Learning." A concluding section highlights six significant categories of strength (administration, the teacher, the student, the community, guidance, and atmosphere), acknowledges that there will always be a need to discuss ways of improving the teaching/learning environment of small schools, and provides a stimulating list of practical suggestions. (NEC)

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The Best of the NASSP Bulletin:

Leadership in the Small School

National Association of Secondary School Principals

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Red Bud, Ill.

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Webb City, Mo.

Timothy Smith
Principal
North Sevier High School
Salina, Utah

Glen M. DeHaven
Principal
Oldtown School
Oldtown, Md.

Janet F. Varejcka
Principal
Bennett County High School
Martin, S. Dak.

1986-87 Committee on the Smaller Secondary School

Ronald L. Lankford, *Chairman*
Principal
Webb City Sr. High School
Webb City, Mo.

Timothy Smith
Principal
North Sevier High School
Salina, Utah

Glen M. DeHaven
Principal
Oldtown School
Oldtown, Md.

Janet Varejcka
Principal
Bennett County High School
Martin, S. Dak.

Gary Joe McClung
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Orono Jr./Sr. High School
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National Association of Secondary School Principals
1904 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091
(703) 860-0200

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Introduction

The NASSP Smaller Secondary School Committee is pleased to present what we believe to be the best articles about small schools that have appeared in the *NASSP Bulletin* during the past seven years. Although *Bulletin* articles can frequently be found to relate specifically to small schools, the purpose of this publication was to compile into a single volume a collection of articles to serve as a handbook for the principal of the small school.

Over the years, the publications department of NASSP has been most successful in providing quality professional materials to the membership of the Association. This publication is another example of the commitment of NASSP to serve all of its members regardless of the unique circumstances associated with each school setting. We trust that you will find this publication interesting and helpful as you seek to provide educational leadership to the students, faculty, staff, and the communities you serve.

Ron Lankford, Chairman 1986-87
Smaller Secondary School Committee

Wayne Collmeyer, Chairman 1985-86
Smaller Secondary School Committee

Introduction

A New View of Smaller Schools

Weldon Beckner
Linda O'Neal

What relationship does the size of a school have to a school's effectiveness — on what it can do and what it cannot do? Several authors in the following pages tackle questions like these after an introduction that explores the basic concept of size as it relates to schools.

THE RECENTLY REJUVENATED concept of "small is beautiful" has renewed interest in maintaining and improving smaller schools and school systems not only in rural communities but also in urban and suburban settings.

Many view this movement, which contrasts markedly with the recommendations and efforts of the 1960s and early 1970s with great favor. They believe that the needs of a majority of students have been neglected and promising practices for all schools and teachers overlooked and underdeveloped in our previous preoccupation with the purported advantages of larger schools.

Basis: Convenience

One of the earlier contributions to the study and discussion of large-versus-small-school questions was made at Teachers College, The University of Nebraska, in the mid 1930s. A large-scale and long-term effort resulted in several volumes of observations and recommendations. The theme was that educational theory and

Weldon Beckner, a former principal in Colorado, is a professor of school administration and Linda O'Neal is project manager, Social Studies Staff Development, Education Service Center, Region 20, San Antonio, Texas.

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NASSP Bulletin, October 1980, pp. 1-7.

practice in the United States had been emphasizing "... largely, if not exclusively those elements and procedures which are best suited to large population centers to the neglect of the needs of the small school systems." However, as we are again experiencing today, it was also pointed out that "... a change of emphasis started even before the dark days of the depression, and the significance and importance of the smaller communities began to be understood and appreciated."

Although there has been much discussion and some research on optimum school size for many years, the general practice has been to build schools and organize school districts primarily on the basis of convenience to the community. This has meant that enrollments are small where population is sparse or other factors influence the number of students wishing to attend certain schools. As this occurred, administrators of these small schools typically tried to improve the educational opportunities for their students by copying those elements of organization, management, supervision, and instruction that commonly prevail in large schools. When this proved to be impossible in many instances, the obvious solution seemed to be consolidation and elimination of the small schools.

The recommendations of James B. Conant in the late 1950s led to a massive school consolidation effort across the nation, but at the same time it was recognized that because of geographical isolation it would be impossible to consolidate all small schools.

Several attempts were made to develop models for organizing and teaching in these small schools, and many voluntary associations of small school personnel worked to improve their schools. Most authorities agree, however, that serious problems still exist in our small schools.

Tasks for the 1980s

Three major tasks for the 1980s have been identified as critical to the solution of these problems:

- Basic research on small school problems, practices, and unique features;
- Curriculum and program development which build on these features; and
- Elaboration and implementation of models for funding and regulating small schools.[2]

1. From the Foreword by F. E. Hanzlik of *Enriched Curriculums for Small Schools*, by Knute O. Broady (Lincoln: University of Nebraska, 1936).

2. Dunne, "Small-Scale Rural Education: Prospects for the Eighties." Paper presented at the Annual State Convention of People United for Rural Education (PURE), Des Moines, Iowa, February 1978.

Numerous studies and recommendations have been made concerning the *best* size for secondary schools. Most investigators have looked for an ideal size in terms of quality of program and/or economy in costs, and resulting recommendations have varied tremendously. A summary of the research on the size of schools and school districts published in 1974 revealed that minimum size recommendations for junior high schools ranged from 90 to 1,500, optimum size recommendations from 521 to 1,200, and maximum size recommendations from 900 to 1,400. Size recommendations for senior high schools ranged from 100 to 1,600 as a minimum, 290 to 2,000 as optimum, and 1,000 to 3,000 as maximum. Recommendations made in the last 15 to 20 years have been for larger minimum enrollments than those made earlier.[3]

The most influential recommendations on school size were made in 1959 by Conant as a result of nationwide studies. His recommendations for improving high schools and junior high schools included 20 different aspects of curriculum, staff, facilities, and other features. To provide these at reasonable cost was obviously impossible in smaller schools. Conant, therefore, recommended that no high school should have fewer than 100 in the graduating class. At that time about 30 percent of the high schools in the country were in this category, but Conant supported the recommendations because he was "... convinced small high schools can be satisfactory only at exhorbitant expense."[4]

Conant stated that "... in many states the number one problem is the elimination of the small high school by district reorganization,"[5] and the Commission on School District Reorganization of the American Association of School Administrators followed suit with the statement that "... small districts need to be reorganized into effective and efficient administrative units. They are outdated and outmoded. They have outlived their usefulness. They can no longer do the job that needs to be done."[6]

Alleged Weaknesses of Smaller Schools

The weaknesses identified as common among smaller secondary schools may be grouped into the areas of curriculum, student achieve-

3. Suzanne K. Stemnock, *Summary of Research on Size of Schools and School Districts* (Arlington, Va.: Educational Research Service, Inc., 1974), pp. 49, 11.

4. James B. Conant, *The American High School Today* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959), pp. 41-76.

5. *Ibid.*, p. 38.

6. Stemnock, *Summary of Research*, 1974, p. 32.

ment, staffing, morale, and cultural opportunities, even though these are often interrelated. The problems cited are typically more pronounced in very small schools and tend to disappear as school size approaches about 700.

Most authorities agree that schools with fewer than 200 students have higher per-pupil costs than do larger schools. As they are currently organized and operated, this is probably true, but it should be noted that creative organization schemes can reduce costs in small schools. It should also be noted that some researchers based their calculations only on pupil-teacher ratios. When non-teaching personnel are included in the calculations, the gap between large and small schools is greatly reduced.[7]

Curriculum offerings in smaller schools are more limited, both in scope and in depth. This is particularly true in the vocational area and in the provision of special programs for the gifted, handicapped, and remedial students. Small high schools also face problems in changing course offerings to meet the changing needs of students and the society.

Some have charged that students from small secondary schools perform less well academically than do those from large schools. This charge is definitely debatable, however, because a number of studies have shown that size makes little difference in student achievement, particularly if allowance is made for variables such as father's occupation, family attitudes, and socioeconomic status.

Acquiring and retaining qualified staff is one of the greatest difficulties facing small schools. This problem eased considerably in the past few years as more teachers became available and urban areas became less attractive. However, it now appears that the supply of teachers is decreasing, and many smaller districts are again experiencing difficulties in attracting and holding good teachers. Staffing problems also occur as the result of needing to offer a variety of opportunities for study with a limited number of staff members. Teachers must often teach in areas where they lack adequate preparation or have little interest. They are also often unable to use special expertise as fully as would be possible in larger schools.

The prevailing attitude in our society for many years has been that bigger is always better; this sometimes gives students in smaller schools the feeling that they are inferior. They are often unable to compete as successfully in student activities or enjoy some of the amenities prevalent in larger schools.

7. William H. Clements, *Ideal High School Size: A Mirage in the Desert* (Stevens Point, Wis.: William H. Clements, 1970.

Small secondary schools tend to include less variety in student social, economic, and ethnic status, thus limiting the opportunity for contact with others from a different background. Although this is not as serious a problem for schools in urban areas, schools in rural areas can experience cultural impoverishment and lack of opportunity for the personal development that comes from contact with different kinds of people.

Some Statistics To Consider

Subsequent to the recommendations of Conant and others, a nationwide movement developed to consolidate small schools and school districts. Many states passed new laws requiring, and even imposing, plans to eliminate small schools unless they were absolutely required by geographic isolation. The stories of controversy and hardship that resulted would fill many volumes, but the results were obvious.

In 1956, 92 percent of all the school districts in the United States enrolled fewer than 1,200 students. By 1961, districts enrolling fewer than 1,200 students had decreased to 84 percent of the total and they included about 15 percent of the students. This decrease continued and 1977 reports showed that school districts under 1,000 enrollment made up 52 percent of the total and enrolled only seven percent of the students. These figures for 1956, 1961, and 1977 are not exactly comparable because the available statistics breakdown varies (fewer than 1,200 students in 1956 and 1961, fewer than 1,000 students in 1977); but the trend in size of school enrollments and the effects of consolidation are evident in these statistical reports.[8]

The number of very small school districts has decreased considerably in the last 20 years. Despite this, there are still many schools in the United States that are considered small by most standards. A figure of 750 is often used in designating those secondary schools considered to be small. Assuming a typical attrition rate, a school district with a high of 750 secondary students would enroll fewer than 2,500 students. School districts of this size or smaller made up over 75 percent of the total number of districts in the United States in 1977, and they enrolled about 29 percent of all the public school students. If the next level of district size reported (5,000) is included in those considered relatively small, then the smaller school districts in the United States

8. *Progress of Public Education in the United States of America*, 1959-60 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, no date), p. 15. *Digest of Education Statistics*, 1962 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962), p. 26. Nancy B. Dearman and Valena White Plisko, *The Condition of Education*, 1979 Ed. (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979), p. 78.

made up about 89 percent of the total number and enrolled 37 percent of all public school students.[9]

When the many small schools located in larger districts are added to this group, the need to give smaller schools adequate attention and help is even more evident.

Benefits of Small Secondary Schools

Teachers, counselors, and psychologists have recognized for a long time that the best way to bring about improvement in the attitudes, feelings, and actions of young people and adults is to build upon strengths, as contrasted to identifying and attempting to correct weaknesses. As strengths are identified and emphasized, self-confidence develops and weaknesses either take care of themselves or can be more effectively approached.

Contrary to the above principle, most people who have studied and written about small schools in the recent past seemed to be entranced with the supposed weaknesses and failings of those schools. This attraction has led naturally to attempts at correcting those weaknesses. Instead of such a pessimistic and negative approach to small school improvement, it seems that we can be more effective (and more cheerful) through an approach that identifies strengths, both real and potential, and makes the best use of them.

We must be aware of the fact that many of the potential strengths of small schools can prove to be deterrents to effective education if they are not approached creatively. Small class size, for example, can become a weakness rather than a strength if teachers persist in lecturing and using other methods typical of large-group procedures. Scheduling flexibility is also made possible by fewer students in a school, but nothing is achieved if the school continues on a rigid six-period-per-day, five-day-per-week class schedule.

Recognizing that some of the items exemplify potential, which may or may not be fulfilled, and that any such list is incomplete and subject to question, let us review some of the strengths that have been identified as characterizing small schools. In no particular order, they include:

- Close relations between faculty and administration.
- Less red tape.
- More participation in decision making by teachers and students.
- Greater sense of community and school loyalty.
- Closer relations between teachers and students.

9. Dearman and Plisko, *The Condition of Education*, p. 78.

- Smaller teacher-pupil ratio.
- Better opportunity for learner-centered atmosphere and program.
- Enhanced potential for individualized instruction.
- Less ability grouping.
- Greater opportunity for students to discover and develop their uniqueness and individual abilities.
- Greater student participation in the activity program.
- More recognition of the importance of each student and each teacher to the total school program.
- Clear expectation that guidance become a function of every staff member.
- Less time, effort, and attention being devoted to discipline.
- More demand for teachers to be generalists rather than specialists.
- Closer relations among teachers.
- Better situation for bringing about change.
- Possibility—even necessity—of multi-age classes.
- Easier and more effective provision possible for student activities and away-from-school experiences.
- Better relations and cooperation with the community.
- Closer teacher-parent relations.
- More parent involvement with the school.
- More teacher and student involvement in program development and school administration.
- More human contact, reducing frustration and alienation, and improving morale of both students and school staff.

Conclusion

Small schools, no doubt, have weaknesses. Some of them have been exaggerated or opportunities for their alleviation neglected, but they do exist. It would seem, however, that a firm commitment to building on the potential and existing strengths of small schools can either eliminate the weaknesses, alleviate them, or counterbalance them with opportunities not available to teachers and students in larger schools. The size of a school is not necessarily the determining factor in producing quality students—it is probably not even the most important factor. If it is, it is because teachers and administrators have failed to use the modern knowledge about learning, current teaching techniques and materials, effective management and organizational procedures, and creative processes for school improvement which are available today.

1. Leadership: Providing a Direction for Learning

Who knows better the complexities of educational leadership than the principal of a small school? Best defined as influencing the behavior of other people, ". . . leadership is demanding, it is enriching, it can be exhilarating."* With this perspective, the diverse complexities of educational leadership coalesce into a marriage of opportunity and challenge.

According to Hallinger, et al. (p. 23) the key area in which the principal can have considerable impact is in giving a sense of purpose to the activities of the school. This focus on academic goals is further emphasized by Wilhelm's (p. 32) look at the use of the team concept to improve learning. For the small school which usually has only one administrator, this means faculty, parents, students.

Abrell's (p. 38) model of successful communications and Thomas' (p. 11) articulation of situational leadership applications provide additional tools for directing learning. At first glimpse, Pellicer (p. 18) appears to consider the negatives experienced only too keenly by a small school principal: lack of time, lack of training, lack of support. However, he reiterates Thomas' belief that school leaders must accept and live with the schools they serve, and realistically urges principals to "operate with the tools at hand."

Finally, Beckner and O'Neal's (p. 1) survey of professional training priorities highlights significant concerns of small school principals in areas of curriculum, instruction, personnel, and operations. The reader should keep the unique position of the principal of a small school in mind while examining these insights into leadership and learning.

---

*David Campbell, *If I'm in Charge Here, Why Is Everybody Laughing* (Niles, Ill.: Argus Communications, 1980).

No Perfect Model

The Complexities of Educational Leadership

M. Donald Thomas

The need for capable leaders in education has never been greater, writes this school administrator, who feels today's schools must be led by men and women of great energy. He describes leadership and explains just how complex the concept is.

Educational leadership is extremely complex. Simple models (events make the man, charisma, a man for all seasons, the great man theory, etc.) do not adequately explain it. The concept must be examined wholistically, in context with history, not in isolation from the organizations, forces, and events that surround it. It has a setting, an historical framework, a wholeness of meaning, a diversity of influences.

Leadership is even more complex when examined in an urban setting. Cities with a cluster of problems and interrelated influences are no longer clean, monolithic systems. Leadership in a city setting is further complicated by the fast-moving interdependence cities now have with state legislatures and federal agencies. The complexities of educational leadership are difficult to organize in any setting; they are almost impossible to unravel in our cities.

Models for Leadership

Nevertheless, tentative conclusions that may help school leaders to better understand their own situations are:

- Leadership is complex and cannot be explained by simple models.
- Leadership is situational and varies with individuals and events.
- There appears to be no one best way to prepare leaders.
- Leadership has important ethical considerations.

M. Donald Thomas is superintendent, Salt Lake City (Utah) School District.

NASSP Bulletin, December 1977, pp. 34-40.

- The study of history helps us to understand leadership.
- There is a current need for leadership in education and the tasks before us are as important as at any time in our history.

Leadership can be studied from many different perspectives. Each can give us clues to what leadership is. But to adequately understand leadership, we must study it in context with the wholistic phenomena of society.

Some will argue that leadership is a great man coming upon the scene to guide people to the promised land. Others will say that events make the leader—that ordinary men and women become great leaders because of the times in which they live. Jefferson is used as an example of the former, Harry Truman as an example of the latter.

In education we have had leaders who appeared to be the knights in shining armor, and we have had those upon whom events forced leadership acts. We have had leaders like William Maxwell and Benjamin Willis, who support the great man theory, and we have had others like Ella Flagg Young and Leonard Covello, who happened to be at the right place at the right time. Yet the factors are so complex that the purity of any model is difficult to establish. For example, with the advent of the civil rights movement, some educational leaders found they were out-of-step with social change and thus no longer able to lead.

Some will say that leadership comes about only by violent change or revolution. Others claim that leadership is best exemplified by gradualism. This basic difference is illustrated by the struggle between W. E. B. DuBois and Booker T. Washington, the leadership styles of Thomas Jefferson and Benjamin Franklin, and the work of Harvey Scribner and Harold Spears. It appears that social evolution requires revolution at one time and accommodation at other times. It may be that both types of leadership are required—some to articulate violence and others to build new structures.

One theory suggests that society requires three forms of leadership: the ideas, articulation of the ideas, and building the ideas. Our own American revolution saw this triumvirate at work: the ideas of John Locke, articulation by the patriots, and idea building by Franklin, Washington, and Hamilton. It may be that the sounds of violence and the call for radical change are needed before the builders can appear to be moderates. Often a period of turmoil and conflict is followed by one of cooperation and quiet progress. Leadership appears to require aspiration, persuasion, and construction.

There is also debate as to whether leadership occurs best when the leader has values that are congruent with those held by the group or when his values are different. Some claim that leadership is possible

only when values are similar; others say that leadership cannot occur unless values are divergent. Those who argue for similar values state that leadership is accepted when the leader is trusted and is seen as the "model" for the group. Those who argue for different values say that leadership is the process of changing group values—that there is no leadership without change.

Here again perhaps both are needed. The leader must articulate the values of the society, but at the same time he must have some personal values that go beyond his followers. Leadership is possible only if one has followers. But leadership is also the process of going beyond the status quo, of exploring new ideas, of creating new forms. In education, leaders must be in tune with the values of their communities to hold their jobs. They must also contribute something from themselves to earn their pay.

Scholars have also argued about whether leaders are manipulative or sincere. Some believe the act of leadership is always manipulative, that the leader knows where he is going, and that he manipulates others toward his objectives. Others claim that when leaders believe and are committed to their purposes leadership is sincere. Sincerity is defined as believing one's own propaganda.

An examination of history indicates that both types of leaders have been among us. Jefferson is cited as one who believed in what he was doing. He is seen as the sincere leader who believed his own propaganda. Franklin, on the other hand, could step back from his own rhetoric and watch what happened, as if he were a bystander. Marcus Foster is seen as a sincere leader; Booker T. Washington, as a detached leader.

The delineation of leadership into two distinct categories, however, does not clearly explain the complexities of leadership. Sincerity and manipulation are difficult to define. And what appears sincere to one may be manipulative to others. It may well be that both qualities exist in leaders as both qualities exist in everyone. It may be impossible to separate what is sincere and what is manipulative.

Leadership can also be examined in the context in which it occurs. There are those who claim that educational leadership is only possible in the favored schools—those located in rich, suburban school districts. Others claim, with equal vigor, that leadership is only possible in the ghetto and in extremely poor school districts.

It is argued that leaders are permitted to reform institutions which are no longer valued, but that those which are still important are protected from change. It is possible to reform poor schools because no one really cares one way or the other. But it is not possible to change wealthy schools because the power wielders will not permit it. The rebuttal is that

without adequate resources leadership is not possible, and that reform is expensive and is possible only where there is money.

Examples can be found for both points of view. Leonard Covello introduced pluralistic education in the poor, inner-city schools of New York long before bicultural education became popular. Washburn led the rich Winnetka, Ill., School District into programed learning and contract curriculum before the learning theory to support them was discovered. We have leaders who initiate expensive programs and others who do as well on a penny budget. We also may have hundreds of others, in all kinds of schools, working quietly doing good things for schools, who are never recognized. And this may be in both types of schools. Truth is elusive and difficult to establish.

The problem is that there is no perfect model for examining leadership. There are no exact criteria. Perhaps leadership is so complex that, at best, we can only obtain clues, study a variety of styles, and partially understand it.

Situational Leadership

Leadership is possible in a variety of situations and varies with conditions and individual characteristics. Certain events help to make leaders while other events have no influence on leadership potential. Certain people are motivated to leadership by social forces while others are not. Those who are not leaders in one situation may be great leaders in another situation.

One leadership style may be quite effective in a particular community at a particular time. It may be ineffective in a different community or in a different context of social forces. Often the events arbitrarily select who is to be the leader—the person who is at the right place at the right time. Leadership by a particular individual may not be possible if the opportunity to lead does not occur. Who knows how many potential leaders have not been given an opportunity to demonstrate leadership ability? And how many have failed because they were in the wrong districts at the wrong time?

The study of leadership indicates that the timing of leadership acts is extremely important. The leader is able to articulate aspirations and assist in the attainment of goals. Sometimes a random act may propel a person into the leadership arena—a speech by Ronald Reagan or confronting students on campus by Hayakawa. One is never quite sure whether leadership is a planned process or a fluke of circumstances. Leadership consists of ability and luck.

In education we have seen extremely successful leaders fail in new assignments. Some who have been mediocre in one district have been

brilliant in another. Often it is not the ability of the individual that determines success or failure but the results of an election or a national event. For example, U.S. Commissioner of Education James Allen lost his job because of his views about Vietnam.

Which leader will succeed in which situation cannot be established easily. But it may be that certain styles are appropriate in certain settings—that certain situations require a particular set of human qualities. Some day it may be possible to define which persons will be effective in particular positions. At the same time leaders may arise in whom no one previously perceived leadership talent. At best we can understand that leadership is intricately woven into social events and who will lead may depend on skill, time, prayer, and good fortune.

Preparation for Leaders

No single program exists for preparing leaders or for individuals to prepare for leadership positions. Leaders come from every segment of society, educated and uneducated, rich and poor. Some come from rural areas, others from cities. Some are extremely articulate while others have difficulty speaking.

Leaders have a variety of styles. Some leaders are "up front" while others work through other people. Some have visionary ideas and appeal to the aspirations woven in the minds of men and women. Some concentrate on putting bread on the table and money in the pocket. There are leaders who are flamboyant and there are those who are reserved.

In education we have no single best pattern to prepare principals and superintendents. There is no educational program that will ensure success in administration. Some of our most effective leaders were educated in fields other than education. It appears that leadership has no specific curriculum, no predetermined set of performance objectives, no common experiential base.

The conclusion is clear: There is no common set of characteristics which leaders have and there is no single best educational program which will result in leadership qualities.

Today we must eliminate the myths about who can and who cannot be a leader. In education we have not provided equal opportunity to all those who want to become school administrators. There is no basis for continuing this practice. Leadership is possible by any person, regardless of race, sex, educational background, weight, or place of birth.

Ethics and Leadership

Leadership has ethical implications. Even the best intentions of moral leaders may result in adverse consequences to others. Sometimes doing

what one considers right hurts other people. At the same time inappropriate leadership acts may have beneficial effects.

There are some who argue that social justice is a noble end. Others claim that concentration on social justice leads to the use of any means to obtain it—riots, murder, destruction of property, individual corruption. Those who claim that individual ethical behavior is the final end are confronted by the reality of having to choose between starvation or death and stealing food or medicine. The question of ends and means is not a simple one, but it must always be in the minds of leaders.

Choices and decisions have moral implications because the acts of leaders have consequences for others. In a society where the consent of the governed is supreme, ethical considerations have sometimes given way to popular appeal.

Many believe that the moral leader is one who discloses his aims and his methods, who operates in the purifying light of public view. Such a leader indicates his biases, his assumptions, and his values. Morality is the extent to which one utilizes open disclosure in all that he does. If his values are not acceptable, he will soon have few followers.

In a society where the home is fractured by divorce, depression, and desertion; in a nation where crime rises at an ever-increasing rate; in a business world where corruption is commonplace; in a social climate where no one appears to have a sense of ethics or sense of purpose, it is imperative that the schools be led by people who consider the moral implications of leadership. If we cannot establish a commitment to fairness, to justice, to due process, to equity in our schools we cannot establish it anywhere else.

Leadership and History

A study of history helps us to understand leadership. It provides us with models to study, gives us opportunities to examine conditions for leadership, and presents contrasting points of view to challenge our own assumptions and beliefs. History forces us to re-evaluate our values, to re-examine the road we are traveling. It illustrates mistakes that have been made.

In addition, history gives us leadership models to place under the microscope. From such models we can extract leadership principles, leadership motivation, leadership styles, and conditions which permit certain individuals to become leaders. This nation needed strong educational leaders in the past, and it needs even more today.

At a time when the problems of educating our people demand more of us, it is critical that schools are served by effective leaders who are committed to social justice and individual ethical conduct. It is imperative that education have men and women who have the will and the wisdom

to take the best from history and use it to improve educational opportunities for all youth.

Being a school leader is not an easy task. It never was. Leaders must be ready to accept and live with the schools they serve. They must accept the failures, the crises, the respect, the affection, the criticism, the good will, the joys and the sorrows. And in the midst of current ambivalence and conflict they can learn from the lessons of history. From history they can gain a deeper sense of worth and value—the schools of this nation have served with distinction and honor.

Providing Instructional Leadership—A Principal Challenge

Leonard O. Pellicer

Filling the role of instructional leader may be the most difficult task a principal faces, says this writer. He explains why on the following pages.

Some years ago, while still a first-year high school principal, I was charged with the responsibility of completing a school accreditation report for the South Carolina State Department of Education. In addition to gathering information regarding teaching loads, staff certification, adequacy of facilities and so forth, I was required to check an appropriate response to a list of assurances regarding program quality.

What Do You Check?

The first item on the list of assurances was, "Does the principal devote a minimum of 50 percent of his time to the improvement of instruction?" The three responses provided for this item were "yes," "no," and "not applicable."

I was stumped on the very first question, certain that "yes" was not an honest response; "no" was likely to have repercussions; and "NA" was completely inappropriate. A call to the district secondary supervisor provided some assistance.

Leonard O. Pellicer is associate professor, Department of Educational Administration, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

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The ensuing conversation went something like this:

Rookie Principal: Don, I have a problem on my accreditation report.
Secondary Supervisor: What is it?
Rookie Principal: I don't know how to check the assurance that requires a principal to spend 50 percent of his time in instructional improvement.
Secondary Supervisor: Check it "yes"!
Rookie Principal: But I don't spend 10 percent of my time in instructional improvement.
Secondary Supervisor: That's okay.

Check it "yes"; everybody else does.

This bit of advice should have solved the problem, but being idealistic as well as green, I decided to check the item "no," as I did several other items on the report. The completed report was forwarded to the state department of education, and in a few weeks I received a response. For the items on the list of assurances that were checked "no," the state department supervisor requested me to respond to two questions:

1. Why not?
2. What do you plan to do about it?

The "why not" will be dealt with more fully below. As for "what do you plan to do about it," I can assure you, I planned to check "yes" in the future!

The concept of instructional leadership could be defined broadly to include a myriad of job tasks and responsibilities such as textbook selection, curriculum revision, class scheduling, student discipline, and many others. For the purposes of this article, instructional leadership is defined in rather narrow terms: those tasks performed by principals in working directly with teachers to evaluate and improve classroom instruction. Such tasks include observing classroom teaching, evaluating teaching performance, and assisting teachers in identifying and improving areas of weakness.

Principals have been found lacking in providing instructional leadership in schools for a number of reasons. Fallon (1979) has even proclaimed that the idea of principals as instructional leaders is little more than a myth. His conclusion is based on the argument that principals are not trained to provide instructional leadership, and even if principals were properly trained, time constraints imposed by other job responsibilities would preclude their effectiveness in an instructional leadership role.

The problem of principals being in a position to provide instructional leadership is surely more complex than can be explained by a lack of training or a lack of time. Principals who seek to be instructional leaders in school settings also lack support from their superiors and subordinates. Principals lack a suitable process to assist them in bringing about positive changes in instruction, and they also fall victim to a lack of agreement among so-called experts as to what constitutes effective instruction.

Lack of Time

The results of a national study by Byrne, Hines, and McCleary (1978) revealed that the American high school of 1977 was significantly different from the American high school of 1965. The most dramatic change involved school size, with the average American high

school growing from "an institution with fewer than 500 students to an institution of more than 750 students." This 50 percent increase in the mean size of high schools has placed increased demands on principals to communicate with students and staff, administer pupil personnel programs, relate to the community, control the fiscal resources, provide instructional leadership, and carry out a host of other responsibilities.

In the Byrne study, principals were requested to specify which of 18 alternatives were factors that hindered them from successfully completing their jobs. The top two hindrances, as perceived by principals, were: time taken up by administrative detail (90 percent); and a lack of time (86 percent). It is interesting to note that while principals felt program development should receive priority in the allocation of time in a typical work week, program development actually ranked fifth behind school management, personnel, student activities, and student behavior.

Despite an average reported work week in excess of 50 hours, high school principals are pressed to meet the challenges associated with educating students in a vastly expanded curriculum, in addition to transporting, feeding, counseling, disciplining, entertaining, and providing them with social services.

Lack of Training

Fallon (1979) makes the criticism, "the degree and professional certification requirements of the various states [cause principals to receive] by as high as a 10-to-1 ratio, background experiences in administration and management to the exclusion of experiences preparing them to evaluate the adequacy of instruction and to exercise instructional leadership."

This criticism, leveled at preservice programs, is indeed legitimate. Many principals, if queried, will frankly admit that preservice programs did little to prepare them for the instructional leadership responsibilities of the principalship. In fact, most learned this critical aspect of the role via on-the-job training. Unfortunately, in many instances, on-the-job training does little to prepare principals to assume an instructional leadership role.

The assistant principalship is the most common route to the principalship in the secondary school. One would assume that this position would be an excellent apprenticeship for the principalship, but this is usually not the case. Principals have simply failed to provide assistant principals with the kinds of experiences that will equip them to one day assume an instructional leadership role. All too often the assistant principal's duties are restricted to one or two narrow areas of responsibility such as discipline and/or attendance. The result is experienced assistant principals who are inexperienced instructional leaders.

Some brief attention must be directed to staff development programs. Instructional leadership, according to Harris (1975), requires the development of competencies: "any combination of knowledge and skills that is adequate for accomplishing some specified outcome . . . ."

Generally, staff development programs for school administrators have consisted almost entirely of in-

formation-giving to the total exclusion of skill development. This kind of training promotes individuals who can talk about skills they may not be able to practice.

Lack of Support

Principals at all levels lack support from superiors and subordinates. Although district superintendents pay lip service to the importance of instructional leadership, the success of principals in managing other aspects of the school program such as discipline, student activities, and housekeeping has traditionally had a greater bearing on personnel evaluations and subsequent salary adjustments. Surely, many more principals have been dismissed for mismanaged athletic programs than have been dismissed for mismanaged instructional programs.

Teachers have also been less than enthusiastic supporters of principals as instructional leaders. Data from a recent study in South Carolina (Ray, 1980) tended to "support research that indicates that teachers consider the principal not as an instructional leader, but rather as a functionary." Teacher respondents in the Ray study assigned a lower priority to the principal's role in instructional leadership than to the principal's role in pupil personnel or business management.

In effect, teachers may be saying to principals "keep the books in order and the kids out of our hair and we will see to the teaching ourselves." Ray surmises that this attitude may be related to poor past performance of principals in carrying out their instructional responsibilities. If Ray is correct in this assumption, then certainly the lack of a suitable model for effectively supervising teaching is near the heart of the problem.

The supervisory model that has traditionally been employed by principals in working with teachers is expedient rather than effective. Principals have breezed unannounced into teachers' classrooms late in the school year, stayed 10 or 15 minutes, formed some conclusions, and breezed out. This model has satisfied the principal's need to evaluate teachers prior to issuing new teaching contracts, but has done little to improve instruction.

A review of research pertaining to supervisory models was undertaken by Reavis (1978). He concluded that teachers were distrustful of the supervisory process as traditionally practiced and that traditional supervision was ineffective in changing teacher behaviors when compared to clinical supervision.

Clinical Supervision Gaining

The clinical supervision model appears to be gaining momentum. Some variation of the five-step process described by Goldhammer (1969) is currently being used in many school districts throughout the country. Goldhammer's model includes: preobservation conference, classroom observation, analysis and strategy, supervision conference, and postconference analysis. Although clinical supervision seems to promote teacher growth in self-confidence and self-direction and evidence points to validation of the model (Sullivan, 1980), this model is probably

not a panacea for principals who wish to develop their instructional leadership role.

Clinical supervision is extremely time consuming, and most principals cannot devote the time required to work through the model with a sizable number of teachers. Additionally, clinical supervision requires a very indirect approach that places responsibility for the recognition and solution of problems on the teacher. Such an approach is foreign to most principals and diametrically opposed to the time-efficient approaches principals must employ in meeting the other responsibilities.

Finally, clinical supervision requires the establishment of a collegial, nonthreatening relationship between teachers and principals. As long as principals have responsibility for evaluating teachers in an administrative sense, this collegial relationship will be extremely difficult to establish. In the final analysis, a fundamental restructuring of the principalship would be required before clinical supervision could become the dominant model employed by principals.

Lack of Agreement About Effective Teaching

Although considerable progress has been made to date, no individual or group has been completely successful in identifying and describing the elements essential for effective teaching. Unhappily, this may not occur for some time, if ever. The results of massive studies such as the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study in California (BTES) should be instrumental in providing guidelines for principals, as well as other instructional leaders, to use in working to bring about instructional improvement. However, new information must be painstakingly gathered and carefully evaluated before being systematically applied in the field.

In the meantime, principals must operate with the tools at hand. They must make instructional judgments based on the best available information. Surely errors will be made, and differences of opinion will prevail. The principal can only hope to minimize such difficulties through hard work accentuated with a dedication to learn everything possible about what constitutes effective teaching.

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School Effectiveness

Identifying the Specific Practices, Behaviors For Principals

Philip Hallinger
Joseph Murphy
Marsha Weil
Richard P. Mesa
Alexis Mitman

What are the factors that make some schools effective? The authors confront that question here by attempting to identify the observable practices and behaviors that are related to effectiveness.

Studies of highly effective schools have given educators new hope that schools can indeed make a difference, a belief that was badly shaken by research conducted during the 1960s and early 1970s.

The hope among educators is that it will be possible to identify practices and processes in these exemplary schools that can be used to increase the effectiveness of all schools.

Five factors that Roland Edmonds believes to be the most tangible and indispensable characteristics of effective schools are:

- Strong administrative leadership;
- A climate of high expectations for all students;
- An orderly, though not rigid, atmosphere that is conducive to per-

Philip Hallinger and Alexis Mitman are senior program associates and Marsha Weil is director of the School Effectiveness Program, Santa Clara, Calif. Richard P. Mesa is chief deputy director for instruction and Joseph Murphy is assistant to the chief deputy in California's Department of Public Instruction.

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forming the primary task of the school, instruction;
- A norm that emphasizes the precedence of basic skills instruction over other school activities;
- A system for monitoring student progress.

The intuitive appeal of these five factors is apparent in the speed and breadth with which they have traveled across the country during the past four years. When interpreting these findings, however, we are faced with a task similar in many respects to that of an archaeologist attempting to reconstruct a prehistoric animal from a set of bones.

We have a skeleton in the form of Edmond's five factors, but lack the connective tissue necessary to fit the pieces together into a sensible and realistic model that explains how schools come to be effective.

Seldom in the research do we hear descriptions of the actual behavior of students, teachers, or administrators in effective schools. What does the effective principal do? How are high expectations among the staff brought about?

At the School Effectiveness Program[1] we have been attempting to construct connective tissue from the skeletal descriptions of effective school processes contained in the research. This process of translating the general characteristics of effective schools into observable practices and behaviors is necessary in order to make the research findings useful to teachers and administrators, even as we continue to learn more about what makes schools effective.

1. The School Effectiveness Program is located in the Santa Clara County, Calif., Office of Education.

This article describes a framework for moving from the general effectiveness factors to specific practices and behaviors, with the focus on a commonly cited ingredient of effective schools: strong leadership by the principal. First we outline the general dimensions and functions that comprise instructional leadership. Then we take one function, monitoring student progress, and show how we have derived specific principal behaviors from it.

Translating Functions into Behaviors

School effectiveness research describes the general characteristics of effective schools. Moving from this broad level of description to specific practices and behaviors can be achieved in a number of ways.

One could study a sample of effective schools and attempt to generate behavioral descriptions of what occurs in them. Descriptions of practices common to all of the effective schools could then be developed through an inductive process, culminating in an effectiveness framework.

An alternative way, the one we have chosen to follow, is to use the functional descriptions of effective school processes already available, and deduce sets of behaviors from them. We then study a number of schools—low and average achieving schools, as well as highly effective ones—in order to see the degree to which the behaviors we have deduced are apparent in them.

In addition, over the next few years we will be evaluating the effects of training programs that teach these behaviors to practicing administrators.

Our framework starts with the general school effectiveness factors and breaks each down into several dimensions. Each dimension is then broken down into a number of functions. At this level of analysis, the information is still relatively reliable. For example, the research provides fairly clear guidance concerning which leadership functions of the principal are most critical to achieving success in the area of student academic achievement. Specific behaviors are then deduced from the functions.

This approach would be strengthened considerably if there were theoretical models available to guide our choice of behaviors during the deductive process. Unfortunately, in the area of school effectiveness we are forced to operate without the benefit of strong theoretical models.[2]

Principals in effective schools are perceived to be strong instructional leaders. This finding is gaining acceptance in schools despite the fact that we do not know whether this perception of leadership is a cause or a result of school effectiveness.[3] This finding will require verification, even as additional efforts are made to specify the principal's activities within this role.

The model of instructional leadership developed at the School Effectiveness Program is broken down into three general dimensions (see Figure One):

- Defining the school's mission,
- Managing curriculum and instruction, and
- Promoting a positive school learning climate.

Defining the School's Mission

This dimension is composed of two functions: framing and communicating the school's goals. Studies of instructionally effective schools indicate that they have a clearly defined mission: improving student achievement. The emphasis is on fewer goals around which staff energy and other school resources can be mobilized.

A few coordinated objectives, each with a manageable scope, seem to work best. They are not only easier to implement, but also easier to communicate. The principal plays a key role in conceptualizing the school's goals, obtaining staff input on their development, and framing them in a manner that increases their usefulness for the purposes of instruction and assessment.

The principal can communicate the school's goals by referring to them often in both formal and informal contexts. The importance placed on the school's goals by the principal, however, is also communicated by decisions made on substantive issues during the school year (e.g., staffing, resource allocation, staff development). Academic goals give a sense of purpose to the activities of effective schools; this is a key area in which the principal can have considerable impact.

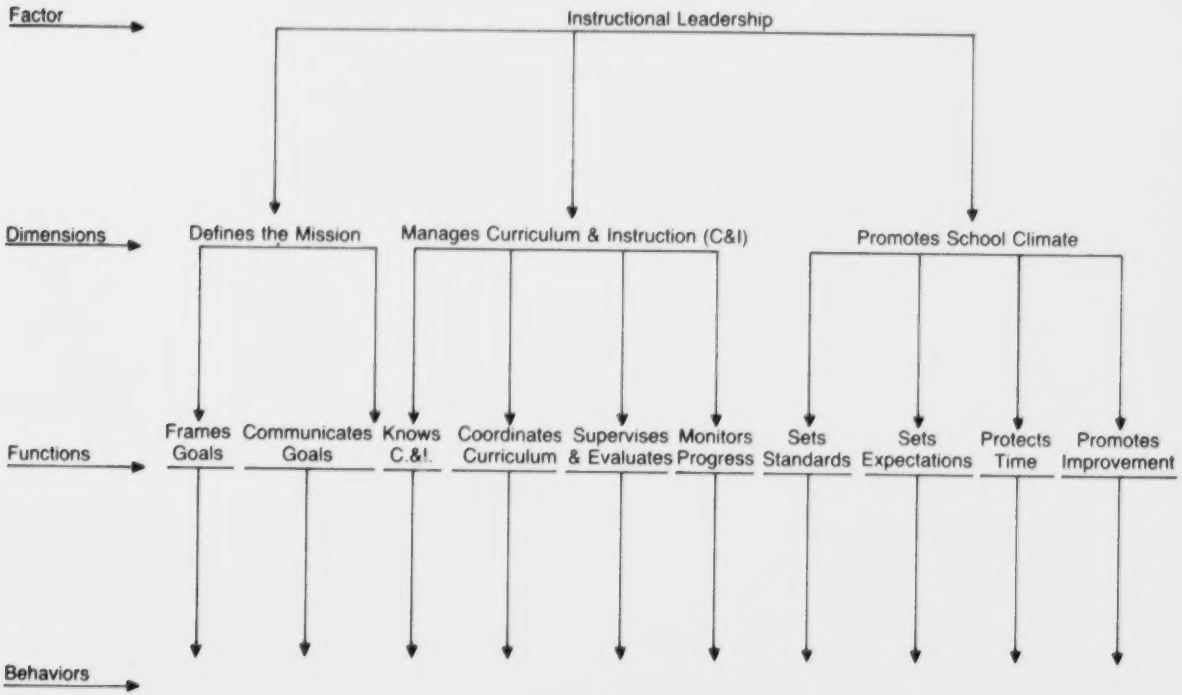
Managing the Instructional Program

The principal's role in managing the instructional program is to maintain consistency between the school's

2. H. Levin, "Educational Production Theory and Teacher Inputs" (Paper presented at the conference on educational finance and productivity, University of Chicago, 1978).

3. M. Cohen, "Instructionally Effective Schools: Research Area Plan," (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, National Institute of Education, 1980).

Figure One


Factor
Instructional Leadership
Dimensions
Defines the Mission
Manages Curriculum & Instruction (C&I)
Promotes School Climate
Functions
Frames Goals
Communicates Goals
Knows C.&I.
Coordinates Curriculum
Supervises & Evaluates
Monitors Progress
Sets Standards
Sets Expectations
Protects Time
Promotes Improvement
Behaviors

achievement goals, classroom objectives, and curricular materials in use, and the instructional practices of the teachers. This involves four separate leadership functions: 1. knowledge of curriculum and effective instruction, 2. supervision and evaluation of instruction, 3. curricular coordination, and 4. monitoring student performance.

Knowledge of curriculum and effective instruction is a prerequisite for a principal to manage effectively the school's instructional program. The supervisor charged with evaluation must have sufficient knowledge of instructional methods to be able to make valid and useful critiques of their performance. Knowledge of the relevant curricular materials is also necessary if the principal is to coordinate effectively the school's curriculum.

Supervision and evaluation of instruction are important functions of the principal in the role of instructional leader. However, work activity studies conducted at the elementary and secondary levels show that principals tend to spend little time working with teachers on instructional issues.[4] In addition, it has been found that principals have traditionally avoided a close inspection of classroom instruction.[5]

Perhaps the most frequently cited reason is that education utilizes an unclear technology for producing student learning. Given uncertainty with respect to the instructional technology, principals cannot be sure that their way of attaining the higher student achievement is more efficient than the teachers'. Thus, supervision and evaluation have been areas fraught with uncertainty and ripe for conflict between principal and teachers.

The contention that education must utilize an unclear technology has been called into question recently by advocates of mastery learning and direct instruction models of teaching.[6] They assert that the principal's role as supervisor and evaluator of instruction is made easier and more valid when the technology of instruction can be specified.

Although no one instructional method has been shown to be common to the effective schools that have been studied, mastery learning models appear often in discussions of effective schools. These models lend themselves to systematic evaluation of instruction and the monitoring of student performance.

Thus, it is not surprising to find that principals in effective schools tend to make more frequent observations of classroom instruction.

A high degree of curricular coordination on the part of the principal has also been cited as an ingredient of effective schools.[7] Wellisch contends that greater coordination of the curricular content, sequence, and materials across

4. N. Pitner, "The Mintzberg Method: What Have We Really Learned?" (Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, March 1982).

5. S. Dornbusch and W.R. Scott, *Evaluation and the Exercise of Authority* (San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass, 1975).

6. Marsha L. Weil and Joseph Murphy, "Instruction Processes," *The Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 5th ed. (New York: Free Press, 1982).

7. R. Edmonds and J. Fredriksen, *Search for Effective Schools: The Identification and Analysis of Schools That Are Instructionally Effective for Poor Children* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University, Center for Urban Studies, 1978).

grade levels sustains effective instruction.[8] In another area of curricular coordination, Cooley and Leinhardt found that the overlap between content taught and content tested varies enormously across schools.[9] Schools can increase the likelihood that test scores will reflect what students have learned in school by ensuring a closer fit between the test(s) in use and the curricular objectives and content. Levine's study of successful schools in Chicago supports these findings. He notes that the alignment among curricular objectives, teaching materials, and testing programs increases the payoff from effective classroom instruction.

The statement of curricular goals and objectives makes it possible for the principal to systematically monitor student progress. Several studies of effective schools suggest that mechanisms designed to assess individual student and school-wide performance can increase school effectiveness.

Monitoring student performance is important to both principal and teacher. The principal uses the information to assess the school's instructional programs and progress toward the school's goals. Teachers need the information to make appropriate adjustments in their individual instructional strategies.

Promoting a Positive Learning Climate

The principal as the school's instructional leader also plays a key role in establishing a climate in which effective instruction can take place. School learning climate can be defined as the norms, expectations, and beliefs of the people within a school which govern their behavior in the domain of student achievement. Given this broad definition, it should be recognized that the principal is but one of many people in the school who exert an influence upon the school's learning climate.

This dimension of instructional leadership focuses on the ways in which the principal can influence the attitudes and beliefs of others in the school with respect to student achievement. It is comprised of several functions: establishment of high expectations for students, establishment of academic standards and incentives for learning, protection of instructional time, and promotion of instructional improvement and professional development.

High expectations for students has been cited as a critical factor in several studies of effective teaching and schooling. High expectations for student performance among the school staff communicate the belief that all students can succeed in school. Academic excellence is not treated by the principal and faculty as the province of a select group of students. The principal has control over several policy areas that have an impact upon the staff's expectations: student grouping, remediation, grading, reporting student progress, and classroom instructional practices.

The principal is able to reinforce high expectations by establishing academic standards and incentives for student learning. These become part of the structure within which learning takes

8. J. Wellisch, et al., "School Management and Organization in Successful Schools," *Sociology of Education*, July 1978, pp. 211-216.

9. W. Cooley and G. Leinhardt, "The Instructional Dimensions Study," *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, Spring 1980, pp. 7-25.

place in the school. This function is particularly important because, in contrast to most of the other leadership functions, it represents ways in which the principal can have a direct impact on student achievement.

School-wide policies represent a relatively unexplored area through which principals are able to exercise influence upon teacher and student beliefs and behaviors. The development and enforcement of school-wide policies in academic areas can exert a positive effect on the learning climate and student achievement. The principal can promote a more effective school learning climate by ensuring that teachers and students have clear guidelines concerning the school's rules and policies regarding promotion, homework, absenteeism, tardiness, and grading.

The second aspect of this function of the principal is focused on the principal's role in promoting incentives for student learning. Studies of effective schools suggest that these schools are characterized by student norms that place a high value on academic accomplishments.

Principals in these schools do not leave the task of rewarding students solely to individual teachers; they develop incentives for learning that are school-wide in nature. These include honor rolls, honor societies, award ceremonies, certificates of achievement, and mention in the school or local newspaper for students who have met expectations for mastery set by the school.

While none of these incentives is new, in the effective schools the rewards appear to reach a greater number of the students, with greater frequency, and in a more systematic fashion.

The principal is also able to influence the learning climate through policies and practices designed to protect instructional time. These include policies that limit outside interruptions of classroom instructional time such as the entry of tardy students, public address announcements, and student visits to the office.

Principals can also protect instructional time by encouraging teachers to start instruction on time and teach to the end of the class period. Policies and practices related to the use of instructional time that are developed and enforced by the principal represent an important channel for communicating and reinforcing high expectations and the importance of the school's academic goals.

The last function of the principal that falls within the dimension of school learning climate is promoting instructional improvement and professional development. This includes the principal's role in selecting staff development programs, facilitating and/or training teachers, and supporting new instructional techniques in the classroom.

The principal can exercise considerable discretion over which staff development programs are chosen and supported by the school's budget. The primary criterion for choosing programs is that they be consistent with the school's academic goals. The principal can also support instructional improvement by facilitating, taking part in, or leading staff development training.

Finally, the principal can build a more positive school learning climate by

supporting teachers in the classrooms as they attempt to implement what they have learned in their training.[10]

Describing Principal Behavior

In this final section we present an example of how the functions described above have been translated into specific principal practices and behaviors. This is done using the function, monitoring student progress. The reader should keep in mind that the behaviors we describe have yet to be verified empirically.

First, the principal develops systematic procedures for reviewing test data. This involves knowing where the school stands on a variety of normed and criterion-referenced tests and seeing to it that the test data are readily available and organized in a useful fashion. The principal can make test information more useful by ensuring that teachers have easy access to the test data and that they receive the results without unnecessary delay.

Test information is useful for identifying students whose performance is either above or below levels of performance that indicate a need for enrichment or remedial programing. Several types of principal practices are suggested by this: the development of criteria for establishing a normal range of scores; the maintenance of lists of high and low performing students; and discussions with teachers to determine appropriate instructional programing for the students.

The principal interested in systematically monitoring pupil performance also meets formally with individual teachers to discuss pupil performance on tests. This is done to assess students' progress towards the teacher's classroom objectives and may be done in conjunction with the teacher's formal evaluation.

School effectiveness is defined by the performance of students across grade levels. Therefore, it seems logical that the principal take the opportunity to discuss the school's performance on school-wide tests. School-wide test performance has implications for assessing progress toward the school's goals, curricular decision making, goal setting, resource allocation, and staff development.

More specifically the principal can discuss the item analysis on tests with the school's faculty to determine areas of strength and weakness within the school's instructional program; prepare summaries of test results; and incorporate test results into the needs assessment process for the school.

The final set of behaviors that describe the principal's role in monitoring student performance is concerned with informing teachers, students, and the community of performance results. Studies of effective schools suggest that the principal and teachers accept accountability for the school's test results.

The principal takes responsibility for keeping the school and community informed of the school's performance. This can be done through multiple forms of communication: newsletters, formal meetings, assemblies, the local newspaper, and in informal conversations.

10. E. Kelley, *Improving School Climate* (Reston, Va.: NASSP, 1980).

Conclusion

The research on effective schools is still in its infancy; yet it holds great promise for educators seeking to improve our ability to produce reliable gains in student achievement for all youngsters. At the same time, it is important to continue efforts to verify the findings and study the effects of improvement programs based upon them.

For Further Reading

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The Administrative Team, a Simple Concept To Facilitate Problem Solving

Don't ignore the team aspects that we have learned from the principal's traditional role in the school, urges this writer, who believes it is important to discover ways in which the team concept can be used to improve education for youngsters.

By Patricia M. Wilhelm

Secondary school principals often frame current problems against a background of their job's past power—the good old days.[1]

According to this collective memory, there was a time when secondary school principals sat at the right hand of the superintendent and helped the board of education determine policy. They were educational leaders who oversaw curriculum development, controlled the budget, maintained institutional order, and spoke for education in and for the community.

Lawrence T. Kanner argues that "the day of the principal as sovereign and absolute monarch ruling through divine right is gone."[2] This entire notion of "the Good Old Days" is a myth.

Even if it was occasionally true for some persons for brief times and in some places in the past, it is untrue as a whole and damaging to those who must deal with the current principal's role. The myth tends to cut current admin-

Patricia M. Wilhelm is at Harding Senior High School, St. Paul, Minn.

1. See for example: Philip A. Cusick, "Secondary School Structure: The Critical Dilemma," *NASSP Bulletin*, December 1981, pp. 40-50; Lawrence T. Kanner, "Power in the Schools: Whither the Administrators?" *NASSP Bulletin*, December 1977, pp. 46-48; and M. Donald Thomas, "No Perfect Model: The Complexities of Educational Leadership," *NASSP Bulletin*, December 1977, pp. 34-40.

2. Lawrence T. Kanner, "The Changing Role of Administration," *NASSP Bulletin*, April 1977, pp. 34-40.

NASSP Bulletin, January 1984, pp. 26-31.

istrators off from the long tradition of skillful public service management which school principals have developed under sets of constraints that were similar to the ones faced today.

A More Useful Concept

It is more useful to understand that schools have always been complex institutions regulated by law, subject to diverse political pressures, and simultaneously responsible to many publics with differing, even conflicting demands. Principals have never been able to overstep the limits of community wishes, school board policy, the orders of the superintendent, or even the limits of the cooperation of the staff.

The principal is responsible for taking the policies, directives, and constraints from above and translating them into measurable results using the staff and materials in an efficient and effective manner. Even if the relative significance of these power centers has shifted greatly over the years, the process of dealing with them has remained the same; and most principals have performed this juggling act well.

There may have been times when the principal's decisions articulated the desires of the community, board, and staff—and thus remained unchallenged—but in the current world, teachers have unionized, state and federal regulations have placed new constraints and demands on the schools, the various publics have become more critical of school performance, enrollments are declining, and budgets have been cut.

The position of the principal is still in the middle and it is still absolutely necessary for the principal to maintain cooperative working links with both the structures above and the staff below.

Harkening back to a supposed era of independent autocracy for principals ignores the valuable experience the profession has acquired in teamwork and team development. It is important to examine current team aspects of the secondary school principal's role and to emphasize ways in which these might be used to improve education for youngsters.

The District Administrative Team

The secondary school principal's responsibilities have always included participation in the district administrative group. In the traditionally organized district the principal's role in the management group frequently has been limited to acting as a "funnel through which the intentions of the top management flow down and integrated information flows up."[3]

More sophisticated districts incorporate the principal in a special management team: "A regularly constituted group of central office management level persons and representatives of elementary, middle, and high schools who meet regularly under the leadership of the superintendent in either an advisory or decision-making capacity."[4] A small number of districts using an administrative team approach may actually be working toward Ouchi's Theory Z

3. Louis E. Barrilleaux, "Searching for Better Ways: How To Increase Managerial Effectiveness," *NASSP Bulletin*, April 1977, pp. 1-8.
4. "Administrative Team Concepts Can Assure Better Focus on Instructional Improvements," *ASCD News Exchange*, January 1978, pp. 1, 12.

model of true team management and team responsibility.[5]

More likely, however, is that some variation of Likert's hierarchical administrative teaming has been put in place, and that its effect is to facilitate the funneling process of intentions and information rather than move toward administrative team decision making.[6]

Among the tasks this administrative team is likely to be assigned are:

- the improvement of communication among school staff members,
- the job of clearinghouse for current issues in the schools and community,
- the formulation and interpretation of rules and regulations governing school operations,
- the analysis of data on the appropriateness and effectiveness of the school district's curriculum,
- the formulation of policies to be recommended to the board of education, and
- advice on decisions of resource allocation.

In any of these areas, group decisions can have significant unifying and strengthening effects on the education of the district as a whole.

When participation accomplishes any of these tasks, the individual buildings are improved and the principal's time is well spent. Participation, however, is frequently a source of frustration. In the district which maintains a traditional structure or which only gives lip service to team management, the principal is trapped in an equivocal position.

Often the expectations of the central office for the principal in the administrative team are unclear, meetings may be time-consuming and the resulting policies or administrative actions may be far from the ideas agreed upon by the group. Boles reports much confusion about the operation of administrative teams in some districts, finding that the term was used to describe ". . . periodic meetings of individuals who were in no sense a team," that had no clear purposes, and lacked authority even to recommend actions.[7]

Additionally, the existence of an administrative team structure may suggest the possibility of affecting district policy that does not necessarily exist in fact, thus diverting large amounts of time from tasks that offer better chances of improving children's education.

Finally, principals are forced to take public positions supporting actions of the district administrative groups to which they have made little actual contribution and over which they have been able to exercise little actual control. "Ultimately, accountability falls upon a person or position. The principal being quite visible to the public, draws much of the fire."[8]

Thus, even in the situation of the most limited formal or actual connection to administrative decision making, principals are well advised to attempt to exercise their influence within what outsiders see as a team.

At this point, some very well-established principal's skills must be re-

5. William Ouchi, *Theory Z: How American Business Can Meet the Japanese Challenge* (Reading, Pa.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1981).

6. Rensis Likert, *The Human Organization: Its Management and Value* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).

7. Harold W. Boles, "An Administrative Team?" *Journal of Educational Administration*, October 1975, p. 74.

8. John Hunt and Robert L. Buser, "Evaluating the Principal—Partnership or Paternalism?" *NASSP Bulletin*, December 1977, pp. 10-15.

emphasized: political understanding and political maneuvering. In the past, these have been the primary tools for the principal in district level dealings. This has not changed.

Principals may choose to focus their concerns narrowly on the school for which they are responsible or more broadly on a view of successful education for the entire district. In either case, it becomes important to influence administrative decisions.

Rather than giving way to the feeling that principals are left out and lacking in authority in relation to district decision making, principals may develop strategies through their implementing and information-gathering tasks that help shape policy.[9]

Principals who choose to politicize their role within the administrative team must accomplish several things. They must come to know and be known by the rest of the group. This means a commitment of time to both formal and informal contacts that allow some level of personal relationship to develop.

While the superintendent and his or her assistants are not "one of the boys," the other central office staff and building principals make up the most trusted sources from which they can draw opinion and information.[10] Acceptance of a particular individual's contribution is always partially dependent upon his or her recognition as a member of the group and, therefore, a more reliable source than other sources of information.

The second imperative for the politically conscious principal within the administrative group is closely linked to the first. Information provided to the central administration must be correct, should stress points of importance to the principal if possible, and must be framed in a manner that is understood by those receiving the messages.

This is a process of recognizing the strengths, weaknesses, and idiosyncracies of the people for whom one works. Subordinates have an obligation to do more than merely tell their superiors what they want to hear; but information, especially unfavorable information, must come to those with power in forms that are most likely to be heard.[11]

Beyond becoming known by and knowing their audiences, principals must recognize the real power structure of the administrative group as opposed to the official power structure and to create political alliances with the people with whom common concerns are shared. A principal may not wish to spend much time in district politics, but since the public will hold the principal accountable for district administrative actions, attempting to influence the course of those decisions is a matter of appropriate self-interest at the very least.

The Building Team

The current literature strongly suggests that the myth of the "good old days" is still true in at least one impor-

9. "The Brewing—and, Perhaps, Still Preventable—Revolt of the School Principals," *The American School Board Journal*, January 1976, p. 25.

10. Franklin G. Moore, *Manufacturing Management*, 3rd ed. (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1961), p. 69.

11. *Ibid.*

tant aspect: the principal is the key individual in the school building.[12] The role is unique. It encompasses a close proximity to both teachers and students, a liaison relationship between the building staff and the central office of the district, and a definable patron constituency linked to a specific attendance area.[13]

While the myth contends that the old-time principal was able to establish a successful school by decree, the determining factor, according to Kanner, was the principal's ability to provide leadership through ". . . the relationship he has developed with the members of his staff."[14] Given the current complex situation, "the principal will have to assume leadership of a true 'team' rather than the fanciful 'team' of which he often dreamed in the past" in order to succeed.[15]

If the principal happens to work in a district with strong commitments to team management and team decision making, there should be little problem in extending these ideals to the building operation level. However, if the district as a whole operates in an authoritarian fashion, the system's traditions are buttressed by the conventional wisdom of an educational profession that encourages principals to believe that administration-community cooperation is no longer possible because of unionized staffs and diverse community demands.

Typical of this view is the assertion that "collective negotiation processes have effectively polarized management from teaching and have forced the principal into the management camp."[16] The perspective of many teachers' groups has labeled the administrative structure of the public schools as ". . . traditionally paternalistic and therefore standing in direct opposition to the drive for increased professional status for teachers."[17]

A significant number of principals have accepted this adversarial formulation and retreated into protestations of helplessness.[18] Such debilitating hostilities are not necessary.

While it would be foolish for any principal to paint himself or herself into a corner by adhering slavishly to a particular style of leadership, an emphasis upon cooperative building development with shared decision making and shared responsibility offers many advantages to the principal.[19] Once the "givens" from statute, finances, district policy, and the teacher contract have been recognized, the principal is always left with a number of discretional policy and implementation items that must be determined.

12. See the data assembled in Lloyd E. McCleary and Scott D. Thomson, "The Summary Report," Vol. III of *The Senior High School Principalship* (Reston, Va.: NASSP, 1979).
13. Richard V. Hatley, "Educational Change—Premises, Pitfalls and Promises." *NASSP Bulletin*, March 1979, p. 6.
14. Kanner, "Changing Role of Administration," p. 40.
15. *Ibid.*
16. Barrilleaux, "Searching for Better Ways," p. 3. See also "Brewing . . .," pp. 26-27; and "It's Late, But There's Still Time to Give Your Principals a Real Say in Management," *The American School Board Journal*, February 1976, p. 34.
17. Kanner, "Changing Role of Administration," p. 36.
18. Philip H. DeTurk, "Leadership: The Heart of the Matter," *NASSP Bulletin*, March 1979, pp. 24-28.
19. William Farkes, "Leadership Style—'It All Depends,'" *NASSP Bulletin*, March 1979, pp. 29-31.

Teachers, parents, and students can be incorporated into the decision and operation processes. Whether this is done through a combination of faculty senate, parent-teacher organization, and student council activities or by mixed school-community committees, the principal can create "side-by-side perspectives" in which all groups share ". . . their various insights, hypotheses, successes, and failures."[20] The paternalistic isolation and resulting suspicion of the principal's role is reduced in the more open atmosphere and the possibilities of overall success are thereby increased.

The process by which decision making within a building is shared need not be complicated. Nor does shared decision making preclude the reservation of some decisions from the entire process or the exclusion of certain groups from some decisions. Staff evaluation for tenure may well be reserved as a responsibility of the principal without participation of other teachers, parents, or students, for example, without bringing the principal's commitment to shared instructional improvement into question.

What is necessary is to develop consistent processes that involve as many appropriate people as possible and that assure group development of creative solution to group problems. The principal's job is to encourage and facilitate cooperation and continued problem solving in order to improve the education of the school's students.

Conclusion

The myth of the solitary, benevolent autocrat leading education to excellence from the principal's seat is a dangerous tradition. The principal has always been a part of a district management group and a school community. The NASSP study of *The Senior High School Principalship* concludes that ". . . the effective principal utilized a strong human relations capability to achieve the task objectives of the institution. He seldom if ever goes ahead alone; he prefers to move ahead together."[21]

This tradition of humane and talented facilitation of group problem solving is what the profession needs to emphasize. Even if constituents see the principal's success as the result of personal qualities such as fairness and honesty, those doing the job must recognize the more sophisticated reality that the successful principal earns his or her success by ". . . commitment to involvement as a means of solving problems" in the complex situation of education.[22]

20. C. B. Dilworth, "Understanding the Best Approach to Educational Leadership," *NASSP Bulletin*, April 1977, pp. 41-45.

21. McCleary and Thomson, *Senior High Principalship*, p. 30.
22. *Ibid.*

A Model for Administrators

Preventing Communications Breakdowns

Most agree that communications is an essential skill of leaders, yet so many take it for granted, not really understanding how complex an activity it is. The writer explains his model to ensure improvement in communications.

By Ron Abrell

Successful communication by frontline administrators is the very warp and woof of a productive educational organization. In fact, some people believe that communication and leadership are practically synonymous. Managing, motivating, persuading, facilitating, and helping are largely dependent upon the successful flow of communication.

Communications, however, do break down among administrators in the compound and the teachers in the trenches. Of some consolation is that nearly all contemporary organizations suffer from communication gaffes of major proportions, which reduce the level of effectiveness, productivity, and quality now required by our Brave New World of Accountability and Efficiency.

Educational practitioners on the firing-line never seem to tire of requesting more practical tools to help them diagnose why communications fail and correct failures in communication. Perhaps practicing educators never tire of demanding the practical because they rarely receive anything beyond lots of talk and, in their own eyes, theoretical claptrap.

This is hardly surprising since frontline administrators are expected to produce measurable results, be highly efficient, and personify overall

Ron Abrell is professor of educational administration and supervision, Western Illinois University, Macomb.

The author is indebted to Evelyn Sinnett, coordinator of Clinical Assignments, College of Education, Western Illinois University, for her creative input in and drawing of the model.

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effectiveness. They realize that lack of effective communication is a perennially tenacious problem and they repeatedly state an almost desperate need for a workable tool that will help them to improve communication.

Everyone has seen persons who possess excellent techniques or skills of communication but fail to communicate successfully because they come across as insincere.

From their own perspective they need something to implement Booker's Law—"An ounce of application is worth a ton of abstraction"—in order to reduce or eliminate the problems accompanying the negative results of poor communication.

Where Do Breakdowns Occur?

With the realization that you can make anything foolproof, but you can't make it damnfoolproof, this article presents a working model that can help leaders determine the cause of communication breakdowns so that corrective measures may be taken.

The model, an extension of the work of Wilbur Schramm, Rudolph Verderber, and James Polczynski, focuses on the major areas where failures in communication most frequently occur. By learning the model and studying it carefully when communication fails, causes of failures can be identified and proper solutions applied with more accuracy, swiftness, and ease.

Communication involves a sender, a receiver, and a message sent in and through an environment. Breakdowns can take place when the sender encodes the message, as the message makes its way through the environment, when the message is decoded by the receiver, and finally, when the receiver responds (gives feedback) to the sender. Admittedly such a process is, in reality, complicated and involves enough variables to cause a variety of breakdowns.

Even so, most people in educational organizations simply assume that communication will take place regardless of its complexity. As the remainder of this article shows, nothing could be further from the truth.

Sincerity

Nearly all researchers and theorists in communication assert that sincerity is the foundation upon which all true communication rests. Without sincerity—honesty, straightforwardness, and authenticity—all attempts at communication are destined to fail. Everyone has seen persons who possess excellent techniques or skills of communication but fail to communicate successfully because they come across as insincere.

Even the slightest hint of inauthenticity will cause a lack of credibility, trust, and willingness to listen and understand. Unfortunately, insincerity simply confirms Lieberman's Law, which seems to operate in so many organizations; that is, "Everybody lies; but it doesn't matter, since nobody listens."

Empathy

Ample research data show that the lack of empathy is among the major obstacles to effective communication.

Empathy is the ability to, in George Herbert Mead's words, "take the role of the other" or to put one's self into another's place. It is the ability to understand another person pretty much as he understands himself. The empathetic person is able to "walk in another person's shoes" or "get inside another person's skin" to the point that he can see the world through the eyes of the other person. Empathy involves identifying with another person without losing one's own identity.

Empathy enables us to:

- accurately understand others' feelings and points of view while maintaining an attentive but separate attitude, thus avoiding maudlin sentimentality and sympathy;
- understand the conditions that contribute to or "set off" those feelings and points of view;
- communicate in such a way that others feel appreciated, accepted, and understood.

A healthy but realistic self-perception is an absolute necessity in communicating and establishing relationships with others.

Again, research indicates that not only is empathy necessary to effective communication but that it also fosters growth and maturity among those who make our institutions work. Carl Rogers (1961) believes that empathy is "the most effective agent we know" for bringing about personal growth and "improving our relationships and communications with others."

Self-Perception

How we see ourselves continually affects our ability to communicate effectively. Whether sender or receiver, our self-perception determines the sincerity and accuracy of the message being sent. For example, if a chairman has had a bad day or been called on the carpet by his superior, he may be so harried or preoccupied with the heat of the moment that he fails to really listen to the concerns of his faculty.

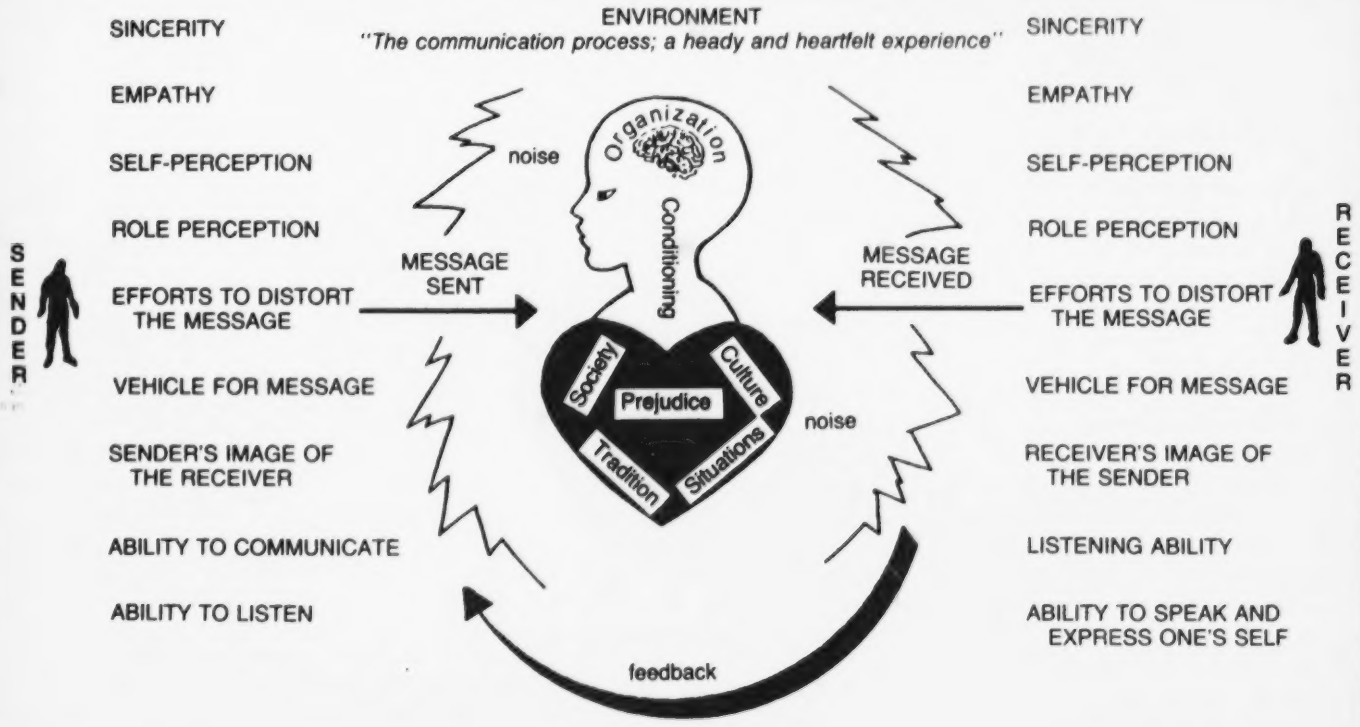
The number of problems and negative situations with which educational leaders must deal are so image-defeating that one's self-perception is bound to suffer. Discouragement, low self-esteem, and continual stress all lend themselves to tuning others out. A healthy but realistic self-perception is an absolute necessity in communicating and establishing relationships with others.

Role Perception

Just as self-perception can be an obstacle to successful communication, the perception we have of our roles can either facilitate or impede communication. The overwhelming number of people who work in organizations (some 90 percent of people in the United States work for organizations of one type or another) want to have a significant role in, want to belong to, and are desirous of making a meaningful contribution to the organization of which they are a part.

Erroneous perceptions of roles inevitably lead to communication, productivity, and morale problems. Unless people know what their role is, the im-

Model for Identifying Communication Breakdowns



portance of their role, and specifically what is expected of them, they will not know what to communicate, when to communicate, or to whom to communicate. Role definition and perception of our role determines when, what, and how we send and receive messages.

Efforts To Distort the Message

Pitfalls in communication frequently occur in our efforts—both consciously and unconsciously—to distort messages. As Sherlock Holmes reminded Dr. Watson in *The Case of the Philosopher's Ring*, whether we are sending or receiving messages, "We make words mean what we want them to mean."

How often do subordinates tell their superiors the absolute, gospel truth when the news is bad? If education is suffering, how many times are the *real* causes identified? If dismissal of an employee occurs, how often does management hear that it did not signal that improved performance needed to be demonstrated? And how often do leaders bend or distort unpleasant messages they send to subordinates?

For those who have spent several years in organizations, the answers to these questions are distressingly clear evidence that conscious and unconscious distortion is an ever-present barrier to effective communication. As Dunne's Law reminds us, "The territory behind rhetoric is too often mixed with equivocation."

Images

A major obstacle to successful communication is the sender's image of the receiver and vice versa. Our image or mental picture of other persons in communication transactions can and often do take away or add to messages sent and received. Teachers frequently wonder what far out ideas administrators will come up with next since administrators are often viewed as not too well-informed about teaching, seen as out of touch with the reality of the classroom, and looked upon as mere paper shufflers.

On the other hand, administrators sometimes see teachers as lazy, inconsiderate of administrative problems, and unrealistic about the strengths and weaknesses of their students. Such views inevitably lead to the proverbial "we-they" attitude, an image that erodes real communication.

Vehicle for Message

The vehicle or means by which we choose to send messages is important in successful communication. In most, if not all, cases the vehicle to be used is defined by the situation. For instance, if an administrator must release a civil service employee or fellow educator, a personal face-to-face meeting characterized by sincere and empathetic reasons for dismissal is far superior to an aloof, cold, and impersonal pink slip. The latter approach communicates a nasty-break, tough-luck attitude without communicating the necessary reasons why the decision had to be made.

In other situations, the telephone may be the best way of communicating, with a follow-up by memo. In some situations, personal contact is necessary to grasp the nonverbal reactions to the message being sent.

Ability To Communicate

Our ability to communicate, or lack of it, can obviously distort or warp the

messages we send. In sending messages, we often limit our effectiveness by judging, sending solutions, and/or ignoring or avoiding our receivers' concerns. Some of our ways of communicating raise barriers by putting a damper on discussion, being injurious to relationships, and/or causing others to feel inferior, angry, hostile, dependent, compliant, or subservient.

Assertion skills, collaborative problem-solving skills, and conflict-resolution skills—along with caring and sharing—are all necessary to get our messages across to others. In all communication, we constantly need to remind ourselves that nobody cares how much we know until they know how much we care.

Listening Ability

One of the biggest barriers to communicating effectively is the inability or failure to truly listen. It has been said that listening occupies more of our waking hours than any other activity. Yet, very few persons are really good listeners. Researchers have found that up to 75 percent of oral communication is out and out ignored, misunderstood, or rapidly forgotten.

To be certain, administrators concur that listening is a major problem in communication, both on the part of themselves as well as on the part of those to whom they communicate. Most administrators openly admit—and perhaps rationalize—that they would be eager to listen more to their colleagues if they just had more time to do so.

Listening is not only hearing what others say but also having a high level of involvement with the sender. Listening, in the truest sense, involves attending skills, following skills, and reflecting skills, all of which demand intense mental energy and close interpersonal relations.

In all communication, we constantly need to remind ourselves that nobody cares how much we know until they know how much we care.

All too often, people fail to appreciate the importance of listening, do not care enough to become actively involved with what others are saying, and/or are not sufficiently motivated to develop the skills necessary for acquiring the art of listening.

Breakdowns—Result of Environment

As if all of the above were not enough, the environment through which messages are sent and received poses still another obstacle to successful communication. All of us bring our own expectations, experiences, interests, attitudes, and values to the institutions of which we are a part. The messages we send and receive are enormously influenced by an environment born of tradition, culture, and society which furnish us with a value system and set of expectations.

Culture

Our cultural heritage, biases, and prejudices serve repeatedly as stumbling blocks to everyone's communication. The facts that we are black or white, young or old, male or female have all proved to be obstacles in communicating effectively. In fact, many

leaders spend a great deal of time trying to learn how to communicate better with those who are different from themselves.

Tradition

Past practice in an organization helps determine how, when, and what we send and receive. A leader who has an authoritarian style may discover that his followers will not talk about their problems easily or share information readily. If a new leader with a democratic style replaces an authoritarian one, the new leader will probably find that it takes a while for his colleagues to offer suggestions, give advice, or speak up on important issues. Obviously, the tradition of one-way communication—from the top down—and central decision making sets a pattern that will affect all future communication.

Conditioning

The manner in which communication is conditioned by the environment influences the accuracy of messages sent and received. Males who have worked for females seem to communicate more easily and better with woman superiors than men without such experience or conditioning. If we work for superiors who consistently set a climate in which we are encouraged to share information and ideas, we soon become conditioned to communicate accordingly. Interestingly enough, we shape our own environment and in turn, our environment then shapes us.

Noise

A major barrier to communication is what communication experts call noise. Noise may be defined "as both the *external* factors in the channels and *internal* perceptions and experiences within the source and the receiver that affect communication" (Verderber, 1978). The channels of communication get clogged by such external and physical factors as interruptions, loud sounds, ringing telephones, or speech impediments.

Many leaders declare that noise and information overload are major stumbling blocks to sending and receiving messages accurately.

In an educational setting, this type of noise should be relatively easy to control but so many times remains unchecked. The obvious course of attack is to simply turn off the noise, or if this cannot be done, increase our power of concentration.

The second type of noise—internal or semantic—is hard to recognize and eliminate. For example, a supervisor may send a message to a subordinate in which he uses a word, phrase, or sentence differently from the way the receiver is used to hearing it. Senders must be careful about choosing their words and then encode them with great care and precision.

Both senders and receivers must watch carefully to determine if there is a common universe of discourse being established and maintained. Many leaders declare that noise and information overload are major stumbling blocks to sending and receiving messages accurately.

Feedback

Communication breakdowns often occur in the area of feedback from receiver

to the sender. Many of us tell those with whom we work that we continually want feedback; however, when we actually get it, we feel threatened and challenged to the point that we become defensive. As a result, our messages become distorted as colleagues question, rephrase, and sometimes, even dispute what we are sending.

Leaders definitely need more training in how to use feedback productively and followers need more training in how to give feedback appropriately. In the final analysis, feedback should improve communication, not impede it, as is frequently the case.

Summary

The model described here is designed to raise the level of awareness of educational leaders as to where communication breakdowns occur. The model can be used in training prospective administrators by such methods as role playing, case studies, and simulation.

The model can also be used by practicing leaders who must communicate on a daily or periodic basis with their followers. As communication problems take place, the model can be used to spot what pitfall has caused or contributed to the breakdown. Once the cause has been located, corrective action can then be taken.

Action, of course, must be taken because it is the task of all education to communicate with accuracy, clarity, and meaning. It is especially the task of educational leaders to communicate with those they serve and with whom they work.

In speaking about the importance of leaders communicating, Peter Drucker states the case briefly but comprehensively: "One has to know what to say; one has to know when to say it; one has to know to whom to say it; and one has to know how to say it."

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2. Management: Creating a Climate for Learning

If management is getting things done through other people, then the effective small school principal must be the master of management. Articles in this section abound in analogies.

Most vivid is Hubley's (p. 70) portrait of the principal as engineer in a boiler room manning the pressure valves of students, parents, faculty. The critical role of communication and public relations skills in operating the "boilers of learning" is vividly portrayed.

Pallo (p. 49) compares the principal's job to that of judge, coordinator, and navigator. Stallings and Britton (p. 60) use commander, moralist, charismatic leader, politician, and problem solver as descriptors, and relate them to expectations. Suggestions for effective use of time and resources include St. John's (p. 51) crucial principles of delegating and priority setting as well as his ultimate planning challenge.

Effective leadership is described by Staven (p. 68) as getting things done but not attempting to do everything alone. He advocates patience, persuasion, and participation. Weldy's (p. 76) vivid portrayal of the difference between busy-ness and busy provides contrast between a "busyness" climate and the "nurturing" climate described by Staven.

John Gardner recently observed, "Every time I encounter an utterly first-class manager, he turns out to have a lot of leader in him."* With this in mind, the reader is encouraged to be alert to the leadership/management impact upon the climate of learning.

*John Gardner, *The Nature of Leadership* (Washington D.C.: Independent Sector, 1986).

The Principal—on the Razor's Edge

George S. Pallo

TODAY'S PRINCIPALS OFTEN SIT in judgment as they select teachers, secretaries, custodians, and cooks. They must also evaluate, deciding annually who will remain and who will be terminated. Rendering these decisions is extremely important in determining the future of every student. Students need to be administered by personnel who are responsible, punctual, and find satisfaction in work well-done. When the assemblage of faculty "clicks", the student body senses that unification and in turn becomes unified itself. By providing the students with exemplary personnel, the students imitate the example.

Principals must also be coordinators. They must activate each individual within the school and the community. They must coordinate the academic schedule with the activity program; resolve conflicts between state and federal programs; soothe relations between teachers and pupils; bridge the gap between the board of education and the faculty; maintain obligations to noncertified personnel; and last, but not least, they must communicate with parents.

In the role of navigator principals must be able to give direction to the curriculum through scheduling of classes and in a sincere way prepare students for post-high-school experiences. Principals, as prime mover, must help guide some students toward college, some toward vocational technical training, some toward military service, and some toward immediate employment within the community. They must emphasize the importance of setting and obtaining goals and they must develop the integrity of each student.

There are times when it seems that every one in the school district wants the principal somehow miraculously to cure all the ills of the student society. It would help if a principal could see into the future a few years and determine which new innovations are worth saving and which should be cast out. Many times the public seems not to realize that the school is a reflection, a small miniature, of the community which spawns it.

George Pallo is principal of Central High School in Fleet River, Mo.

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NASSP Bulletin, October 1980, pp. 44-45.

Serving as a principal in the smaller community high school is a monumental task. The jobs of judge, co-ordinator, and navigator can become cutting roles. Within these areas principals must maintain a keen sense of self-awareness and their own ideals. If they do not, they are certain to fall into the abyss of dissatisfaction. Principals must help build the bridge in the high school that starts in the student world and extends over that controversial chasm to the other bank which is called the adult world. Doing this, principals can stay on the razor's edge.

Paper and Pencil Necessary

Effective Planning, Delegating, And Priority Setting

Walter St. John

In an era of tight money, expanding demands, and increasing accountability, it is imperative that principals improve their ability to plan effectively, capitalize on staff potential by proper delegation, and set priorities for optional use of time and resources, says this writer.

Successful principals plan effectively, delegate wisely, and work according to priorities. These activities must be carefully coordinated if a school and school district are to achieve desired educational goals and performance standards. The following guidelines should assist principals with their planning, delegating, and priority-setting efforts.

Planning

The busier the principal the more important it is that he or she take time to plan. Reserving time for planning is not a luxury; it is an imperative. Careful planning will actually increase a principal's effectiveness because he or she can allocate sufficient time and resources to do a job right the first time.

Planning Requirements

Good planning requires four things:

- Listing the things to be done.
- Arranging the sequence for doing them.
- Estimating time requirements.
- Identifying resources needed to get results.

Walter St. John, a former principal, is a free-lance management consultant.

NASSP Bulletin, February 1982, pp. 16-24.

The ultimate planning challenge is to effectively integrate the following as a routine and continuous operation:

- Planning
- Organizing
- Deciding
- Doing
- Evaluating Results.

Planning Must Be Flexible

All activity in a school cannot, and should not, be determined in advance, because:

1. Needs and conditions are not constant.
2. Plans are affected by changing events in and outside the organization.
3. The consequences of planned actions cannot be entirely anticipated.
4. New information and situations require revised planning.
5. People are involved, thus some unpredictability is inherent.

Key Components of Planning

Planning will be enhanced if the principal considers the following components in the planning process:

1. Time
2. Target dates
3. Logical sequence of activities
4. Priorities
5. Identification of the parts of the plan and the relationship of the parts to the whole
6. Preliminaries accounted for
7. Availability of human and material resources
8. Provision for subparts to fit smoothly into the whole (coordination)
9. Involvement of all affected parties
10. Determination of general goals and specific objectives
11. Recognition and provision for the necessity to overcome problems and obstacles to goals
12. "Fact finding" to establish sound information base
13. Advance notice to avoid surprises and to allow quick response
14. Anticipation of possible problems
15. Identification of alternatives
16. Evaluation of goals and objectives
17. Revision based on results of evaluation.

Primary Causes of Planning Failure

Realistic expectations and an understanding of the main causes of planning failure should assure success in planning endeavors. Primary causes of failure include:

1. Lack of commitment by top level administrators to the integration of planning into the daily operation of the school
2. Inadequate commitment to the process by implementing staff members
3. Wrong participants in initial planning and insufficient input of key information
4. Lack of administrator and staff understanding of the planning process and its components
5. Expecting immediate, or too many, results
6. Rigid adherence to the original plan despite changing conditions

7. Letting the plan become an end in itself instead of a means to an end
8. Planning too much, too fast
9. Trying to implement without a sense of priorities and timing
10. Failure to see the proper sequence of steps and the need to coordinate different elements of the plan
11. Responsibility for implementing unclear or too restricted
12. Human tendency to do the easy, the convenient, and the comfortable despite planning considerations.

Planning Methods

Principals have a variety of proven planning techniques to choose from. The methods can be used individually or in combination depending on the planning need or school situation. Ten promising methods are:

1. Group brainstorming
2. Case study of comparable situations-needs
3. Simulation exercises and role playing
4. Delphi technique
5. Charette (informal structured discussion of all aspects of a problem for set period of time)
6. Scenario writing
7. Introspection and analysis of school goals activities and results
8. Trends examination and extrapolation
9. PERT (program evaluation review technique)
10. PPBS (program planning budgeting system).

Planning Approaches

There are many approaches to planning, ranging from the simple and informal to the complex and sophisticated. For most purposes the following six-step approach for completing a job or task should be sufficient:

1. Define the entire job
2. Estimate the resources required to do the job
3. Anticipate problems and constraints
4. Assess the time available for completion
5. Estimate the time needed for completion
6. Prepare the actual schedule with target dates.

Time Considerations for Best Results

A principal should follow three guidelines for best planning results:

1. Schedule the most difficult and highest priority tasks at the time of day you are at your best.
2. Reserve some time each day, if possible, to deal with unanticipated problems, unexpected crises, and sudden opportunities.
3. Keep flexible at all times to capitalize on opportunities, adjust to new needs, and adapt to revised priorities based on changing situations.

Ten Planning Admonitions

1. Develop long and short-range plans
2. Make plans continuous, not sporadic

3. Consider past as well as future
4. Consider consequences of action, inaction
5. Don't wait for all facts and the perfect time
6. Don't permit planning to become an end in itself
7. Clarify goals and desired results
8. Exert discipline when following essential steps
9. Develop goals for the total good of the school, not narrow interests
10. Build in provisions for review and necessary revision.

Delegating

The truly effective principal delegates as many important matters as he or she can. The sharp principal focuses on getting things done through others.

Five Common Rationalizations for Not Delegating

1. "The only way to get a job done right is to do it yourself."
2. "I really can't trust anyone else."
3. "No one else around here has my background and experience."
4. "I can do it faster than I can explain it to someone else."
5. "I don't really know what to delegate or to whom."

The Key to Successful Delegation

Principals will have more success in this area if they remember this: The key to effective delegation is to communicate the results that you expect from a person rather than to designate specific activities.

Duties To Delegate

Effective delegating begins with a commitment by the principal that he or she is going to delegate freely. Four types of duties should be delegated:

1. Routine and recurring items
2. Minor decisions made frequently
3. Things that require excessive time that others could do as well
4. Matters that subordinates have special competency and interest in doing.

How To Delegate

Principals will delegate more proficiently if they follow this five-step approach:

1. Delegate by results expected, not by activities, and not by method.
2. Set performance standards. This permits measuring of results achieved.
3. Give the delegate all relevant information, including anticipated problems and obstacles, and resources and assistance available.
4. Delegate only to qualified persons.
5. Establish controls to alert you to operational exceptions and serious problems.

Crucial Principles of Delegating

The following 12 principles should be observed by principals when delegating:

1. Accept the need to delegate and do so enthusiastically.
2. Analyze your subordinate's strengths and weaknesses for the delegated task.

3. Select the right person for the job.
4. Review the job carefully with the person being given the task to ensure he or she understands
   - What has to be done
   - When it has to be done
   - What help is available
   - What constraints exist
   - How it has to be done (if the person is inexperienced).
5. Agree on goals and performance standards.
6. Provide for any necessary training.
7. Give freedom to get the job done.
8. Be supportive and ask how things are going periodically, but don't snoop or demonstrate a lack of confidence.
9. Assess results.
10. Give appropriate rewards.
11. Demonstrate trust—don't snatch back delegated tasks (be helpful without interfering).
12. Inform staff members of the delegation and your full backing.

Control Techniques To Keep You on Target

To ensure satisfactory results from delegation a principal should observe these control techniques:

- Set performance standards in advance:
  —Let staff members know exactly what is going to be measured
  —Define what level of quality, quantity, time, and cost will indicate satisfactory performance
  —Specify what results are expected.
- Explain the boundaries for doing the job:
  —Define authority for decision making
  —Define areas of decision making
  —Define the help available
  —Define related company policies and procedures
  —Define relationships to other people and tasks
  —Define freedoms and restrictions within boundaries
  —Define acceptable deviations to get the job done.

No Principal Can Run a School Alone

The surest way for a principal to kill him or herself professionally is to refuse to learn how, when, and to whom to delegate work. Principals would profit from remembering:

- Delegation gives you an opportunity to take on additional important work yourself, to expand your contribution.
- Delegation relieves you of petty, routine details that are not part of your job and that can probably be done just as efficiently by someone else.
- Delegation helps keep your office from becoming a bottleneck.
- Delegation improves the morale of your staff by giving them a feeling of sharing responsibility.

Priorities

There is a clear need for all administrators to recognize the importance of proper priority deter-

mination. Too many executives fall into the trap of focusing their attention on immediate problems rather than on those that are truly important. Consequently, they go from crisis to crisis. Many of these crises could be avoided and the need to fight endless brush fires reduced if priorities were established.

- There is no point in doing well that which you should not be doing at all.

The Sinister Activity Trap

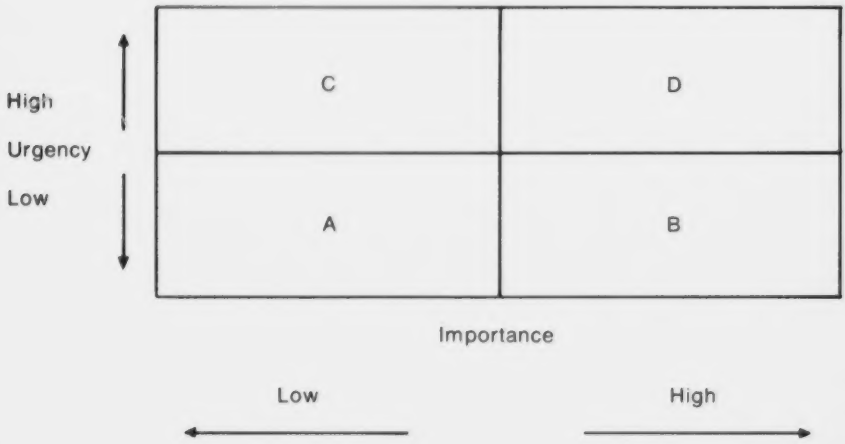
School administrators need to be constantly alert to the perils of being caught in the sinister activity trap. Management authority George Odiorne contends that "the activity trap afflicts large and small businesses alike. It extends to all aspects of the private and public sector. It is *contagious*! All managers are susceptible and vulnerable. Unless victims are aware of it, the activity trap will ensnare the wisest and most experienced managers as well as the least experienced.

"What is the activity trap? It's the abysmal situation people find themselves in when they start out for what once was an important and clear objective, but in an amazingly short time, become so enmeshed in the activity of getting there, that they forget where they are going." Thus, the method or process becomes more important than the goal and result.

Twelve Important Concepts

1. Priority determination is an integral part of planning and decision making.
2. Every phase of the administrator's job is affected by his or her ability, or inability, to assign each activity or task its proper priority.
3. Priorities are necessary if we are to avoid going from crisis to crisis and if we are to avoid piecemeal approaches (thus wasting time and effort).
4. Attitude is perhaps more important than technique concerning priorities. (We can't expect others or even ourselves to suddenly possess the sets of attitudes that enable us to set priorities easily and comfortably. Determining priorities is difficult and requires discipline.)
5. It takes awareness, desire, and conditioning to routinely operate on a priority basis.
6. Management frequently is characterized by hit-or-miss procedures. (Managers fail to utilize technological know-how and a mass of information from data banks to determine priorities.)
7. Never dehumanize decisions and priorities by relying solely on machines such as computers, and techniques such as systems analysis.
8. Do not ignore the significance of human feelings as well as logic and facts (there always will be subjectivity in any value judgment).
9. Managers must put first things first.
10. A priority must always be in reference to something else: thought, effort, pressure, time, money, resources, etc.

Guide To Setting Priorities



Category A:

Low urgency/low importance items can be postponed, ignored, or perhaps referred to someone else.

Category B:

Low urgency/high importance items can be handled by you or delegated to a key member of your staff so that work can be started on building the foundation for solving the problem or meeting the opportunity.

Category C:

You should probably handle high urgency/low importance items yourself, time permitting. Otherwise they should be promptly delegated.

Category D:

High urgency/high importance items should definitely be handled by you.

11. Frame of reference is important for priorities and includes such things as:
    - Current vs. future needs and goals
    - Current costs vs. future benefits
    - Fiscal vs. human needs
    - Pressure-desire vs. recommended practices
    - Short vs. long-term goals
    - Functional vs. aesthetic considerations
    - Overall benefit vs. power and special interests.

12. Factors related to priority determination:

- Type of function or activity (e.g., required by policy or discretionary)
- Number of persons affected
- Importance or urgency of task
- Closeness of task to goals
- Relative value (payoff to you and your school)
- Relative costs
- Public relations and political ramifications
- Consequences and problems involved
- Extent and intensity of need and interest
- Person requesting task (position and status)
- Effect of task on other things needing to be done.

Approaches to Priority Setting

One school of thought suggests that the best approach in setting priorities is to assign a priority based on the relative urgency and importance of the task compared to other tasks competing for attention and time. The four categories shown in the table can help with priority determination.

Another method of setting priorities involves these steps:

1. Make a list of things you need to do.
2. Rearrange the list so items that pave the way for other items are moved to the top of the list.
3. If the number of items is so great as to be confusing divide the items into separate groups first and then fit them together as follows:

Priority Planning Chart

Things to do—Write items down in any order you think of them	Transfer items to this column in order of importance. Act upon them in numerical order	Use this column for related notes, memory joggers, facts, phone numbers, etc., for each priority listed
	1.	
	2.	
	3.	
	4.	
	5.	
	6.	
	7.	
	8.	
	9.	
	10.	

- Divide a sheet of paper into two columns by drawing one line from top to bottom. Head these columns first and second priority.
- Next, consider all the separate parts that make up the total task facing you (e.g., each step in a plan). Ask: could the outcome of this item significantly affect any other step on the list? If the answer is yes, put the item in column one. If it's no, put it in column two.
- Repeat this process for each item.
- Next, pencil in a deadline date next to each item.
- Finally, on a new sheet arrange items in one column by priority sequence.

A third approach, employing a priority planning chart, offers the added advantage of reminding the planner of facts related to the priority setting decision.

It is reassuring to note that even in our computer age, paper and pencil are all the materials needed to determine priorities successfully.

Advice for Principals

Expectations Can Be Fickle, Fatal, Forceful, Formative

John W. Stallings
Paul R. Britton

Principals who can't handle expectations will not succeed as administrators. The writers tell how to identify, clarify, and cope with them.

Principals may be omniscient, understand all mysteries, able to move mountains, and sacrifice unselfishly; yet, if parents, teachers, and students do not perceive the necessity and effectiveness of all this, principals are not perceived to be successful.

If principals could miraculously move the highest mountains, they would still face the varied expectations of whether the mountain really should have been moved in the first place, and/or the different perceptions of how well it was moved.

These problems of expectations for what should be done and perceptions of how well they are being done are painful dilemmas among high school principals. In a real sense, the principal is expected to be all things to all people—at the very least educator, moralist, commander, group member, charismatic leader of the "right" position, idealized image for all youth, consummate politician without seeming to be, and solver of all social problems.

John W. Stallings is professor of educational administration, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, and Paul R. Britton is principal of Frisbie Junior High School, Rialto, Calif.

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Max Lerner, the columnist, observed:

> Being an educator in our day and age means to be caught in conflicting riptides of grandiose expectations, swelling angers, and convulsive fears. Education is supposed to solve every problem, heal every social wound, and at the same time instill discipline, shape individual mind and character, and reshape the society closer to our heart's desire. These are grandiose expectations because we dump every load of our puzzlements and hopes on the educational system. No institution can possibly carry the burden of so many illusory hopes without turning them into disillusionment. (1973, p. 15)

Stanavage (1967) portrayed the anxieties of principals when he said: "In no other group . . . is the crisis of identity so acute as that suffered by the principal. . . . It is schizoid beyond belief" (p. 322). It is no wonder there is a crisis of identity; principals in this decade have been called upon specifically to deal with conflicting and sometimes diametrically opposite demands in such areas as collective bargaining, participative management, curriculum and instructional strategies, accountability, pluralistic philosophies, and student discipline. In fact, if the problem were not so serious, the principal's role would seem comic—like Pooh Bah, in the operetta "The Mikado," who was Lord High Everything Else, First Lord of the Admiralty, Second Groom of the Backstairs, etc.

A certain seriousness is necessary, however. The principalship is probably the most crucial role in education today, and confusion in expectations for the role is one of the principal's fundamental problems. The problem of multiple expectations of principals will be addressed first by summarizing recent research findings. Secondly, strategies for dealing with multiple expectations, gathered from research and experience, will be listed under the subtopics of identify, clarify, and cope with conflict.

Multiple Expectations for Principals

"Two-Thirds Disagreement"

Currently, there is nearly universal disagreement on approximately two-thirds of the specific functions of the high school principal. Three recent studies indicate this possibility, even though each one was conducted in a different locality and used a different instrument. Furthermore, these studies show that conflicts in expectations are more likely to be revealed for specific functions of the principal such as "teaching classes," than for broad categories such as curriculum and instruction, general administration, and so forth (Taggart, 1975; Brown, 1973; Britton, 1978).

Critical Conflicts

Research also indicates that there are certain critical conflicts in expectations in individual school systems, which, if left unresolved, can contribute to dysfunction in local schools. Examples of this conflict among populations of parents, teachers, students, and administrators extracted from one study are:
(a) administrators considered student

discipline to be substantially less important than did all other populations;

(b) teachers considered inservice education to be less important than did administrators;

(c) teachers considered "administrative" functions to be relatively important while administrators considered them to be relatively unimportant;

(d) while there were indications that various kinds of evaluations were important, there was considerable disagreement about what evaluations were important and how they should be done;

(e) there was disagreement about both what should be done for good community relations and how to go about doing what should be done; and

(f) teachers tended to believe that administrators need not be deeply involved in curriculum and instruction, while administrators thought they should be (Britton, 1978).

Structure and Consideration

In 1968, Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, using Halpin's continuum of initiating structure vs. consideration and Muse's extrapolation of Getzels' nomothetic and idiographic concepts, concluded that most school leaders thought that the functions of the principal should be oriented around the school system's goals (nomothetic), while teachers tended to expect the principal to be concerned more with employees' needs (idiographic). While these expectations for the principal's role may have been true in the past, it now appears that at least urban school staff members with difficult problems want the principal to be concerned with structure and with the nomothetic dimension as much, if not more, than with the idiographic.

What to do? Only Pooh Bah could be everything to everyone, or even more absurdly, could force people back into the tidy homogeneous enclaves of old at the point of his "snikersnee" (great sword). What to do then? At the very least, have a repertory of strategies to use for multiple expectations.

Strategies for Multiple Expectations

Identify Expectations

In a sense, there is a certain similarity between pilots with cloudy skies and principals with foggy expectations. Many pilots love to "fly by the seat of their pants" when the weather is clear, when there is little traffic, and when the aircraft is functioning perfectly. To pilot a school, however, when the expectational skies are fogged, when the perceptual lanes are mixed, and when the school is being buffeted by winds of dissent, more sophisticated instruments are needed to reach the proper destination.

One instrument the principal needs is a "people's expectation measurer." Two such devices are Wilson's "Questionnaire of Principal's Functions," designed in 1974 (Britton, 1978), and Gray's "Principal Expecta-

tions Questionnaire," developed in 1961 (Gray, 1961-1962). Both are surveys which allow graduated type responses. However, composition of one's own questionnaire should not be extremely difficult.

Clarify Expectations

Ambiguity in dealing with expectations, or even outright duplicity, is always tempting to the principal because of the difficulty of dealing with actual differences. But regardless of one's ethical predelictions, both ambiguity and duplicity are pragmatically questionable.

Examples of duplicity are numerous. Many administrators fall into the trap of giving teachers one answer to a question and to managers another. It doesn't take long for notes to be compared.

An example of ambiguity was recently given by Briggs (1979) when he stated that during the integration crisis in Los Angeles there was confusion over the roles of teachers, principals, and superintendents which added to the tremendous problems already exsiting. There are many ways to clarify expectations, and thus reduce the principal's problems while enhancing effectiveness.

A. Prioritize functions. One way to clarify expectations is to compose a composite, priority-ranked statement of the principal's functions by asking parents, teachers, students, and administrators to rate functions by their importance. This statement can then be used to establish working priorities and as a beginning point for discussion to resolve conflicting opinions. For example, one study concluded that important functions for principals (in priority order) were:

- Morale, communications, evaluation, stimulation, and identification of needs
- The management of teachers in processes of selection, orientation, assignment, evaluation, stimulation, supervision, and dismissal
- Work in curriculum and instruction as an effective manager to make good teaching possible and to coordinate planning, rather than actually to perform such tasks as teaching, or personally to engage in curriculum projects (Britton, 1978).

These priority-ranked functions make an ideal point of departure for either action or further consideration.

B. Deal openly with differences. Several studies substantiate that differences in values and expectations that are not openly known cause more difficulties than recognized differences do. Although tough, it's often wise first to openly define differences, then to state whether or not it will be a "live and let live" existence, or it will be one with open persuasion. Budget decisions, particularly those pertaining to cutbacks, for example, should be made in this way, if participative management in schools is to work.

C. Make conflicts clear. Make observable to others the conflicting demands and pressures. People may

press their contradictory demands out of sheer ignorance; knowledge of the conflicts may be enough to provide a resolution of the conflict.

D. Delineate duties and authority. Research shows that a clear definition of duties and authority has the potential for reducing expectation conflict and increasing productivity. Poorly defined duties, ambiguity in expectations and values, and unclear delineations of authority for decision making all seem to be correlated with teachers' insecurity, tension, and general confusion. Inasmuch as many teachers and principals are frequently confronted with conflicting expectations by different supervisors, district line and staff organizations are needed that make possible relatively easy vertical coordination of programs.

E. Re-clarify. Gross, Mason, and McEacher (1966) say that periodic re-clarification of expectations is important because (a) people's expectations and perceptions change, (b) perceptions are often inaccurate, and (c) there is seldom a consensus in expectations.

F. Compose group rights and responsibilities. One way to minimize the cross currents of group conflicts is to articulate expectations into a pattern of rights and responsibilities. In cases where reduction of conflict is needed, small groups can aid both in describing the conflict and in helping to compose realistic rights and responsibilities. This technique might be most helpful in emotional situations such as school closures or integration. When there is little or no need for conflict reduction prior to ranking priorities, these can simply be published.

Cope with Conflict

The high school principal is confronted daily with many potentially volatile forces. Opera divas used to be known as the most impossible people. Principals know that others now have taken the divas' place! Few, if any, large school districts have cosily consonant populations. Devisive differences, instead, are the order of the day. Recognizing conflict as a reality related to multiple expectations of the principal requires some strategies for effectively coping with conflict.

A. Create a "dynamic homeostasis." Lipham and Hoegh (1974) postulated that it was not necessarily true that all conflict was dysfunctional, nor that there was a linear relationship between conflict and effectiveness—that when conflict goes up, effectiveness goes down. Instead, the relationship seems to be curvilinear. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that there should be a balance between stability and instability, and an equilibrium between congruent and conflicting expectations—in short, a kind of "dynamic homeostasis."

The problem is how to maintain an appropriate balance between the dynamic and homeostatic. While strongly clashing expectations can be cataclysmic and destroy schools, smaller tremors of differing expecta-

tions can constructively rearrange thinking and programs. One of the tasks of the principal is to control these potentially seismic dislocations. Strategies can be used to minimize conflict and help one to operate successfully with conflict.

B. Adjust expectations. It is obvious that the principal can elect to try to change the expectations of the group or the expectations of the principal, or to modify both. In attempting to get groups to modify their expectations, expert leadership, in all its complexity, is usually called for. When principals adjust their behavior or their expectations, they must be flexible without compromising their own basic premises or those of society. These behavioral changes are extremely complex in that they involve a deep understanding of the groups' concepts of reality, and an integration of "multiple realities." One needs to understand all mysteries!

C. Give institutional role privacy. Principals should have periodic institutional role privacy. Getzels, et al., defined this as interruption from constant contact with others in order to provide some opportunity for role behavior at odds with some expectations to take place without strain. For example, even an open classroom should not be open all the time. This privacy refers to institutional behavior and not to individuals' concealment of certain of their personal behaviors. Parenthetically, this should not be interpreted to be a recommendation for individuals not to have privacy in certain personal behaviors.

D. Vary importances. Principals need to make clear the priority of importances of different groups having role relationships to one another. For example, parent groups with children in school are more important than a taxpayer group with no children in school. Expectations may conflict but one group should be known as central, others as peripheral.

E. Encourage certain coalitions. One means of providing a role encumbent with some freedom from conflicting pressures is to manage coalitions of power within and among groups. The purpose, of course, is to keep any group or individual from imposing its expectations at will upon any other individual or group.

F. Be inconsistently gracious. One means of control is through the use of Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory—inspire positive attitudes in opponents by behaving toward them in ways that seem positive, thus inconsistent (Festinger 1957). It takes a very determined opponent to continue to behave contrarily in the face of gracious strength and help.

G. Save the opponent's social face. Tjosvold's social face research (1975) revealed that when low power or high power bargainers sought to maintain the opponent's social face they achieved their desired goals, and that the most successful bargainers were those with definite goals and least defensiveness.

H. Conflict summary. The following rules given by Reed (1977) for dealing successfully with labor-management conflict can also be transposed to other conflict situations:

- Recognize and use the authority of the principal in such ways as to be cool, positive, and strong.
- Be open, empathetic, reasonable, and absolutely fair in giving all teachers equal treatment.
- Don't be afraid to admit an error.
- Recognize the principal's authority to run the school.

Above all, principals must work to help all to be winners. They must move from the old concepts of conflict where struggle resulted in the inevitable ecstacy of victory for some and the humiliation of defeat for others. They must move instead toward the waging of a campaign for cooperation. In so doing, it may be helpful for principals to ask the following questions:

1. What do I *think* I am saying?
2. What are they really hearing?
3. What decisions do I want them to make?
4. How can I make it easy for them to make those decisions?

As pluralism has become more pervasive, knowing what to do with multiple expectations has become more important.

Conclusion

Expectations can be fickle, forceful, fatal, and formative. The principal must never be immobilized by trying to meet all expectations nor be handicapped by disregarding too many of them. Cardinal Wolsey found in Shakespeare's Henry VIII's court, "How wretched is that poor man that hangs on people's favors! . . . when he falls, he falls like Lucifer." Equally, Richard Nixon's coterie found how failed and felled is he who disdains, disregards, and damns people's expectations.

Similarly, although principals move mountains, if they fail to deal wisely with expectations, they are failures. On the other hand, successful principals are finding effective ways to identify, clarify, and cope with conflicting expectations—thus making them forceful and formative rather than allowing them to be fatal.

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Administrative Behavior That Will Get Things Done

LaVier L. Staven

A true administrator is one who accepts risks and expects on occasion to be misunderstood, says this writer, who expands this definition on the following pages.

How should a principal behave in a public school setting? And more specifically, what style of administrative behavior will get things done? What follows are one administrator's thoughts on that subject.

There are two views of administrative practice. The first, described variously as authoritarian, paternalistic, or conservative, is classified as defensive. The other viewpoint defines an effective administrator as one who acts as a catalyst, a consultant, and a resource to the group. His job is to help the group to grow, learn, and emerge.

Premeditated Intimidation

Defensive administrative behavior, in this writer's opinion, is in reality "premeditated intimidation." The intent of this style of behavior is to develop an inhibiting, threatening, and discouraging working environment. The administrator who embraces this style is often a "workaholic" with little understanding of how to work with people.

LaVier L. Staven is dean of the School of Education at Fort Hays State University, Hays, Kans.

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Emergent or participative administrative behavior, on the other hand, assumes that as people grow they learn to assess their own aptitudes, discover their interests, and develop their basic potential. Administrators employing this style offer their colleagues every opportunity to maximize self-determination and self-assessment, to verbalize their goals, to try new jobs, or to enlarge the scope of the work they are doing. In addition, they trust people to make mature judgments about job assignments.

This kind of participative activity creates interdependence and diminishes the problem of authority. For instance, work is allocated by consensus—people assess their abilities and select or create appropriate tasks. Where there is interdependence, conflict and disagreement are openly expressed and can be resolved and integrated into productive work. Where people feel they are working together for a common goal, channels of communication are free, open, and spontaneous.

Who Is Effective?

The effective principal is a person who enjoys the respect and confidence of the school's faculty and staff. This principal is a constant supporter of excellence in the performance of faculty members. The curriculum, and the men and women who make it, are major concerns.

The effective principal is a person who gets things done but does not attempt to do everything alone. He or she is the relentless enemy of busywork; delegates responsibility; and helps and encourages staff members to assume responsibility.

The effective principal has the ability to sense the temper of faculty members on a given issue, but to take the position that will be most beneficial to the school. At times this may entail helping faculty members to see the value in the chosen position.

A true administrator is one who accept risks and expects on occasion to be misunderstood. Not a weathervane, he nonetheless watches for signs of academic storms and charts an appropriate course. He remembers the Augustinian formula:

> In essentials, unity.
> In nonessentials, liberty.
> In all things, charity.

Put another way, an effective principal practices patience, persuasion, and participation. He provides a suitable climate for the nurturing of excellence. He frees himself from the trammels of busywork. He is a teacher of teachers. Most important, an effective principal has a talent for and respect for administration.

Engineer in the Boiler Room—The Role of the Principal

John W. Hubley

Analogies are handy vehicles for conveying ideas. In the following article, the principal is compared to an engineer in the boiler room. The reason for this meaphor is quite simple; *pressure* is the main element in the principal's workday environment. The principal's PR roles and skills are all managed within the heat and stress of this setting.

HIGH SCHOOLS TODAY experience virtually every pressure operating in the social order. The positive pressures of success and achievement, integration and equal educational opportunity, accountability in spending and teaching, and involvement in the political process are at work in the high school. The negative pressures of drugs and alcohol, violence and extortion, the breakdown of discipline, and declining enrollments are also relentlessly at work on the high school campus.

Principals are the educational engineers who operate the boiler rooms. From morning to night, they are manning the pressure valves, both positive and negative, to maintain an environment in which the instructional process may take place.

Although many of the pressures are destructive of the learning environment, this analogy should not be considered only negative. Proper mental, psychological, and social heat is what generates the pressure to operate the boilers of learning.

The principals are operating engineers. They regulate and control these pressures. In fact, they spend *most* of their time working with them. Little time is left for

John W. Hubley is administrative assistant for public information for the Phoenix (Ariz.) Union High School System.

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extended planning, curriculum development, classroom innovation, careful evaluation, and moments of thoughtful reflection which recharge their own internal systems. They don't make things happen in the traditional sense so much as they seek to manage what is going on around (and within) them. They seek to control a whole network of boilers they had no part in firing up in the first place. And, for the most part, they were trained to be educators, not engineers.

Developing the principal's communications and public relations skills is a vital process for the future of secondary education. In fact, these skills are basic to the school boiler room operation, since communications and public relations are absolutely essential to the system: they improve the positive pressures, reduce the negatives, and balance the entire process.

Dealing with Student Pressures

Some students want to play a vital part in campus life. Others only want to play around—skipping class, taking drugs, and starting fights. Young people produce the greatest pressure on principals in the boiler room. Here are some ways that principals are dealing with these pressures through public relations:

- Spend time every day just walking around the campus, talking with students, showing an interest in youth activities, smiling at students and learning their names, and building the image of an open and friendly human being.
- Set aside some time each week to "rap" with students in small groups, to confer with student government or advisory groups, to have student leaders meet with the principal's management team and the campus faculty council.
- Allocate some time each month to talk with student newspaper reporters and editors, to gather and publish stories of student achievements in the school bulletin, and to disseminate similar materials to the daily and weekly newspapers.
- Set agenda items for both formal and informal sessions with students that come directly from their concerns and complaints. Each must be handled openly, honestly, and thoroughly so students feel they have been listened to, and that the principal has done whatever possible to respond.
- Stay in touch with the community relations officers to keep posted on rumors and subversive activities, and to build a working relationship which will provide effective cooperation in emergencies. Keep in touch with parent and civic leaders, for they are valuable resources to have on campus when there is restlessness in the air.

Dealing with Parent Pressures

Parent pressures occur in the boiler room in many forms. Social interest groups such as band boosters keep the pressure on for a strong elective program. Ethnic parent groups press for more basic skills and career courses. Parents of exceptional students want special programs for their children. And a large segment of the parents seem apathetic until some crisis threatens the status quo.

Here are some public relations ideas principals are using to regulate parental pressures for the support of a well-rounded educational program.

- Invite parents to become partners in education as members of an active principal's advisory council, as participants in periodic opinion surveys, as members of instructional materials selection committees, and as participants in curriculum evaluation and planning committees.
- Mail out parent newsletters, student handbooks, test results, curricula offerings, student newspapers, and attendance information on a regular basis. Parents will take time to read materials that are well-written and attractively laid out with a generous use of photographs.
- Make use of printed materials and parental participation to reduce negative pressures, enhance positive pressures, and keep the boiler in balance. The main thing is to keep the climate for learning as appropriate as possible.
- Train active parents as volunteers to help the school make door-to-door surveys of citizen opinion, prepare the parent newsletters for mailing, telephone prospects before bond issues and override elections, and walk the campus during periods of student unrest.

Dealing with Faculty Pressures

Without question, the majority of our teachers are dedicated to help students achieve in the classroom. Many teachers want a bigger role in planning curriculum, determining class size, and selecting the principal. Others want to become an integral part of the decision-making process and determine direction at the highest levels. Still others only want to be left alone and paid on time with a just wage.

Principals are caught in the pinch of these boiler room pressures. Here are some public relations ways they are dealing with them in a constructive manner.

- Visit classrooms, the faculty lounge, and the staff cafeteria on a daily basis. Stop and talk with teachers, listen carefully, and remember what was said.

- Formally recognize during faculty meetings the good things individual teachers are doing; acknowledge them also in the school bulletin and personally. Train your mind to note the good things so you may recall them when needed.
- Involve teachers in curriculum evaluation and planning, the principal's management council, instructional materials selection, and the like, so long as they are within the provisions of the contractual agreement.
- Meet regularly with department heads and periodically with the entire faculty to keep staff informed; invite feedback on school problems.
- Always be open, positive, and friendly with teachers, no matter what is said or printed about you, and no matter how tense the climate may be during negotiations. Nothing is more important in working with faculty, and everyone for that matter, than a positive attitude.

Plugging into Available Resources

Principals are starting to make good use of a wide range of resources in their PR programs. Here are a few:

- Actively seek the assistance of district public information personnel to plan and assess PR efforts to get more feature stories in the papers and on television and to develop feedback from students, staff, parents, and community.
- Make greater use of campus PR coordinators, student newspaper editors and photographers, and parent mailing volunteers in circulating stories to the daily and weekly papers, attractive newsletters to the parents, and material to other media.
- Maintain a positive mental attitude at all times. It is this attitude which accentuates the positive and overwhelms the negative. It is a PR resource of great power in helping the principal-engineer regulate the pressures in the boiler room.

Conclusion

When the principal becomes a skillful and positive PR engineer in the educational boiler room, by persistently informing and involving as many of the school's publics as possible, all the pressures will surely not disappear, but the positive pressures will dominate to produce a dynamic learning environment.

Making Changes Without Increasing the School Budget

James M. Sheerin

THE JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH school in Center Moriches, a semi-rual area at the eastern end of Long Island, N.Y., has an enrollment of approximately 550 students.

The school district has faced numerous educational problems, two of which were publicly highlighted by the board of education: student discipline problems and low student reading scores. We believe that discipline problems are directly related to a curriculum which does not satisfy student needs.

Curriculum changes appeared to be a remote possibility without additional space and funding. However, regardless of these constraints, our high school is taking positive action to solve these complex problems.

Our first priority was to stabilize student conduct. We started by writing a comprehensive discipline policy with rules and regulations to guide the conduct of students. The major objective of the policy was to help students develop self-discipline. Six months later the high school had dramatic decreases in student truancy, lateness, class cutting, fights, and generally speaking reduced discipline referrals.

Although we were elated with these dramatic changes, we knew this condition could not be sustained unless we attacked the core of the problem, curriculum. To start, two reading programs were implemented:

- The first program had teachers infuse reading instruction into all areas of the curriculum. Teachers in all curriculum areas whenever the opportunity would arise, taught reading.
- The second reading program was a nationally validated program known as High Intensity Tutoring (HIT), which is a sequential reading program pairing student tutors with student tutees.

After introducing these two programs we received a 97 percent passing rate on the New York State Minimum Competency Examination. In addition to this, significant reading gains were achieved by many students in the high school.

James Sheerin is principal of the junior-senior high school in Center Moriches, Long Island, N.Y.

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Also initiated was an effective Pupil Personnel Team composed of educational specialists: school nurse, psychologist, reading specialists, administrator, counselor, and a classroom teacher who met weekly to discuss students who had special learning and adjustment problems. The team proposed that we adopt an alternate program of instruction, which we called the Career Internship Program (CIP), designed for reluctant learners and selected handicapped students were mainstreamed into the high school. Each student selected for the program was allowed to choose eight career opportunities. Every school day they were placed with a community sponsor for five weeks in the afternoon. After the five-week period each student was switched to his next career choice. Academic classes were scheduled in the morning for each student on a daily basis with an effort to correlate the student's outside experiences with academic learning.

Several other new curriculum courses were adopted over the period and have attracted a good student following. An interdisciplinary approach is being attempted with one of these courses of study.

All of these programs did not increase our school budget and we were able to assimilate them into our existing crowded school building. They were implemented in a little over a year and a half. We still have student discipline and learning problems, but there is direction and hope that if we continue, our objectives will be reached in the near future.

The Busy Principal Syndrome

Gilbert R. Weldy

With tongue in cheek, this author says there are definite advantages to one's appearing busy. He describes just how one can emphasize the appearance of *busy-ness*. It's not sufficient to be busy unobtrusively, he says, others must know you are busy.

The image most people have of the typical principal is that he is a very busy person. Those surrounding the principal recognize and acknowledge how busy he is and cater and defer to this immensely overburdened person. Callers say: "I'm sorry to bother you when you are so busy" or "Can I have a minute of your time?" or "I know how busy you are."

Secretaries jealously guard the principal from unwanted interruptions. Assistants run errands for him. Teachers keep problems away from him because they respect the enormity of his responsibilities. Their concerns, they know, are inconsequential to the critical affairs that occupy the time of their leader.

Well-Tested Stratagems

When such attitudes develop, the principal can maintain his sense of importance and manage his affairs within reasonable time limits; but a clever principal may just find it advantageous to cultivate this impression of busy-ness and importance. He can become, like Chaucer's lawyer in *Canterbury Tales*,

Nowhere so busy a man as he there was
And yet he seemed busier than he was.

Here are some well-tested strategems for establishing and perfecting the "busy principal syndrome." You too can look busier than you really are.

Walk fast. Hurry everywhere you go, whether there is any need to or not. Pass everyone up in the hallways. This gives the impression that you have emergencies to tend to and little time to handle them. Even when

Gilbert R. Weldy is principal, Niles North High School, Skokie, Ill.

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you're just going to the faculty lounge for coffee, show a little burst of speed if there is anyone watching.

Always come a little late to meetings. This is a fairly obvious ploy for helping people sense your importance. When you slip in late after the meeting has started, mumble an apology and refer vaguely to someone "overstaying their leave" or say you "just couldn't get away." Everyone will know that you were unavoidably detained, a very typical and understandable hazard for such a busy person.

Leave meetings early. Leaving meetings before they are over has essentially the same effect as coming late, but it requires a slightly different technique. When the time that you have determined to leave is approaching, start looking at the clock or your watch and begin to gather your papers and push your seat back. Do this inconspicuously but not so much so that your meeting mates aren't aware that you must have another date in your busy schedule and have to leave. They'll read your body language. Before leaving, whisper something to the person next to you about "running late" or "another meeting" and tiptoe out. As you leave through the door, point to your watch as a cue to the chairperson that time does not allow you to stay longer. This neat ritual has the nice effect of reminding people how busy you are.

Do your paper work during meetings. One of the most effective ways to keep people mindful of how busy you are is to take a briefcase full of paper work to a meeting and work through it during the meeting. Write routing notes on your correspondence and memos to your secretaries and underlings. Don't hide what you are doing. You can still pay attention and make a contribution now and then, but the most significant impression of your activity will be letting people know that you are so overburdened that you have to use every minute.

Have someone call you out of meetings. Probably no ruse is quite so public and quite so dramatic as to be called out of a meeting. Truly busy, important principals are being called out of meetings all the time. It really doesn't have to be a trumped-up call. Just let your secretary know where you are, and tell her that as soon as she gets something done, or as soon as someone calls, or as soon as a message comes, to call you and you'll tell her what to do. She'll call you from the meeting, and the effect on everyone present is golden.

Dress (or undress) for work in meetings. When you come to a meeting, take off your coat, roll up your sleeves, and loosen your tie. (There is no equal ritual for female principals). This gives the unmistakable impression that you're a workhorse and ready to plow into the business of the meeting. Even if you don't add a jot or a tittle to the accomplishments of the meeting, you've gotten across the idea that you are ready, willing, and able to work.

Send someone else to meetings. With your authority as principal, send a subordinate to a meeting you don't have time to attend. This gives everyone the impression that you are just too busy to make all these meetings. Be sure your emissary announces at the outset that he is representing you, that you were unavoidably detained, had another meeting, or were out of town.

Keep a cluttered desk and a full in-basket. Keep the reading material stacked there all year long. It wouldn't hurt to have the stack grow a little each week. Always leave several papers and a writing pad prominently displayed on your desk.

Display your "While You Were Out" notes prominently. You've all seen them. They are on every principal's desk—oversized paper clips, mousetraps, or clothespins mounted on walnut stands. Well-organized principals have such a place for secretaries to put calls to be returned, important messages, and reminders of meetings.

Keep your callers waiting for a few minutes. Busy people have trouble keeping on schedule, so it will be no surprise if your appointments are running just a few minutes late. Have your secretary call you on the intercom to tell you that your next appointment is waiting. Tell her to advise the visitor you will be with them in just a few minutes. When they are ushered in, greet them enthusiastically at the door and apologize for keeping them waiting. They will invariably respond by acknowledging that they know how busy you are.

Delegate everything. The more you delegate to secretaries and subordinates, the clearer will be the impression that you are efficient and well-organized and are doing your best to manage the responsibility that is yours.

Have your secretary place your calls. If you really want to give people a taste of how it is really to be busy and important, have your secretary place all your calls, even those within your building. When your secretary gets your party on the line, delay taking the call for a minute or two. While they are waiting patiently for you to get on the line, they will be pondering how weary you are.

Keep your appointment book full. This shouldn't be too difficult to do and doesn't really involve subterfuge. Most principals have a fairly heavy schedule of appointments and will have many of them scheduled on some kind of desk calendar. On the assumption that most visitors take a peak at your desk calendar, be sure to have your appointment calendar filled with names, events, and reminders. There is nothing more misleading to a casual visitor than to have an open appointment book with naked pages glaring up from your desk.

Fiddle during interviews. Busy, important people are often distracted and preoccupied. You can give that impression by sorting papers, signing a few checks, and rearranging things on your desk while you are in conference with someone. This lets the person know how precious your time is, that you are able to attend to their business while at the same time accomplishing some of the tasks that your busy schedule doesn't allow time for.

Be mysteriously absent much of the time. A principal who is always available really can't be very busy with important school-wide responsibilities. A better impression to give is an empty office with your desk cluttered with unfinished work. Be sure to leave the door open so that passers-by can see that you are off again on an urgent, necessary mission somewhere in the school. To enhance this impression of business, don't tell your secretary where you are. Thusly, she can only tell callers that you must have had a sudden call somewhere or a dire emergency and didn't have time to tell her where you were going.

Always carry a full brief case. There is nothing quite so impressive as seeing a principal leave every evening with a brief case with papers, professional journals, pamphlets, and reports.

Talk about how busy you are. When others comment about how busy you are, don't deny it, but make some gratuitous response to acknowledge that you are indeed busy and overburdened with work. This kind of continuous commentary about your activities will effectively perpetuate the busy principal syndrome.

3. Instruction: Improving Classroom Learning

Instructional leadership has always been a complex and challenging process. Leaders with ability to do and daring to think'' were important in the ''Real Tiger School'' days when ''fish grabbing, horse clubbing, and tiger scaring'' was the curriculum of concern.*

Duke's (p. 83) reflections on the numerous interpretations of the instructional leadership role include six key factors of instructional effectiveness and the related leadership functions of the effective principal. Guenther and Hansen (p. 99) provide information about new and different forms of program organization for course offerings, particularly in small schools. Childs and McCoy (p. 95) list 25 programs to increase academic excellence and promote a positive learning environment.

Small schools and rural schools are not necessarily synonymous, but like twins, they can be either similar or identical. In addressing rural educators, Oelschlager and Guenther (p. 110) consider small/rural teacher training needs and useful information courses. Concern is expressed for attention to improvement of educational quality in small and/or rural schools via the design of programs appropriate to a given setting.

Constructive uses of technology in the small school are described in several articles. Computer training programs, shared technology, cable television, and microwave transmission all can be useful tools for a more effective curriculum in the small school. With new technology, the size of the school or the class within the school need not dictate the curriculum.

Instructional strategy, individualized instruction, teacher tests and use of test results are addressed by Nelson, Thompson, and Dickens (p. 129).

The reader is urged to review Brimm and Hanson's article (p. 140) carefully. These writers provide tables—Capitalizing on Strengths and Compensating for Weaknesses—that validate their statement that the size of a school is not necessarily the determining factor for quality.

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*J. Abner Peddiwell, *Saber Tooth Curriculum* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1939).

What Can Principals Do?

Leadership Functions and Instructional Effectiveness

Daniel L. Duke

This article describes what instructional leaders should be doing in light of recent research on teacher and school effectiveness.

After a decade in which researchers and pundits all but forgot about the value of educational leadership, the principal has again emerged as a key element in school effectiveness. Considerable attention, if not rigorous inquiry, has been devoted to one dimension of the principalship in particular—instructional leadership (Morris et al., 1981, pp. 13-14).

What remains unclear are the specific functions of instructional leadership, and how observers can recognize it when they see it.

One difficulty is the lack of conceptual clarity concerning the notion of instructional leadership. Should primary emphasis be placed on "instruction," as in the case of the British head teacher who spends as much time in actual contact with students as he or she does performing administrative tasks? Or is "leadership"—suggesting supervisory responsibilities—to be stressed?

How is instructional leadership to be distinguished from other forms of building leadership? Is a principal who spends time trying to secure funds from the central office for new textbooks less of an instructional leader than his

Daniel L. Duke is director, Educational Administration Program, Lewis & Clark College, Portland, Oreg.

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counterpart who sits in classrooms observing teachers work?

Because of problems such as these, the term instructional leadership will not be used in this article. Instead, I shall speak of the leadership functions associated with instructional effectiveness. Such a conceptualization has the benefit of linking my observations with an existing body of research—the teacher effectiveness and school effectiveness literature. In addition, by addressing leadership functions rather than instructional leadership, I imply that there are a *variety* of skills or behaviors associated with effective instruction.

Instructional leadership, on the other hand, seems to convey more of a unitary nature, as if it entailed a specific and stable set of personal characteristics. Such a notion does little to facilitate efforts to observe differences between principals and train them to be more effective.

Assumptions Support Concept

Several important assumptions support the concept of leadership functions associated with instructional effectiveness. First, no single leadership skill or set of skills is presumed to be appropriate for all schools or all instructional situations within a school. Therefore, principals who wish to maximize their effectiveness stand to benefit from the acquisition of a repertoire of leadership skills. The foregoing assumption further implies that the leadership functions associated with instructional effectiveness can be learned. The adage that leaders are born rather than made thus receives no support from the present analysis.

According to my original assumption, it would be a mistake to take for granted that leadership functions which contribute to instructional effectiveness in urban or large schools would necessarily be as helpful in rural or small schools. Similarly, the critical leadership functions for periods of growth or stability may not always be those called for during periods of fiscal stress and retrenchment. Much remains to be learned, however, about which leadership functions are most appropriate for which settings and circumstances.

A final assumption is that the structure of school organization influences the behavior of principals and that principals, in turn, influence the structure of school organization. This relationship may be described as one of "reciprocal determinism."[1] Principals may be expected to influence instructional effectiveness directly by interacting with teachers, as well as indirectly by creating an organizational structure that facilitates instructional effectiveness.

The effectiveness of instruction and the behavior of teachers, in turn, may exert an impact on how principals interact with teachers and modify school organization. Thus, it can be extremely difficult to achieve clear distinctions between the causes and the effects of instructional effectiveness.

The concept of instructional effectiveness suggests that teachers are able to accomplish, without undue expenditure or unethical practice, the objectives they set for themselves or which are established for them by school au-

1. This term was first used by Albert Bandura, Department of Psychology, Stanford University.

thorities. These objectives range from student academic achievement as measured by standardized tests to the inculcation of certain desirable work habits and character traits associated with good citizenship.

During the past two decades, research on the correlates of effective teaching has steadily increased (Brophy, 1979; Clauset and Gaynor, 1981; Duke, 1979; Edmonds, 1981; Glasman and Biniaminov, 1981; Murnane, 1980; Rosenshine, 1978; Stallings, 1980; Stallings, 1981).

The research on instructional effectiveness, of course, is not without criticism. Problems have been identified with sample selection, methods of analysis, and generalizability of results. The percentage of variance in student achievement accounted for by school and instructional factors sometimes seems insignificant when compared to that attributable to socioeconomic status and other exogenous factors.

Few longitudinal studies have been done to determine the stability of effectiveness correlates over time. The criteria for judging effectiveness too often are limited to standardized measures of achievement. Many more studies have focused on elementary schools than secondary schools.

Despite the fact that these and other shortcomings exist in the data base on instructional effectiveness, it would be a mistake to act as if nothing were known about the subject. Principals, after all, still must see that decisions are made on matters pertaining to instruction, whether or not the final word from researchers is in on how students should be taught.

What, then, can be said currently about instructional effectiveness that may be of help to principals? The literature on the subject is relatively unambiguous about the importance of six key factors:

1. Competent teachers
2. Adequate time for direct instruction
3. An orderly learning environment
4. Adequate instructional resources
5. Communication of high expectations
6. Continuous monitoring of progress.

While there doubtless are other factors that can contribute to instructional effectiveness, these six provide a sufficient basis for investigating relevant leadership functions. The question that arises and serves as the focus for the discussion to follow is, what can principals do to see that these key elements of instructional effectiveness characterize their schools?

I identify four directly related leadership functions and two functions that are indirectly related to the achievement of instructional effectiveness. The four "direct" functions include staff development, instructional support, resource acquisition and allocation, and quality control. Two additional functions—coordination and troubleshooting—make it possible for principals to engage in the other functions with a minimum of wasted effort. The six functions are depicted in the diagram, and are discussed on the following pages.

Staff Development

The development of an effective teaching staff has little to do with luck.

It results from at least three activities in which principals can play crucial roles—recruitment, inservice education, and staff motivation. Without capable teachers, it is unrealistic to count on any of the other factors linked to instructional effectiveness.

Schools cannot expect a steady supply of talented teachers to be available for openings, even during times when jobs are scarce. In recent years the number of qualified education graduates has diminished dramatically. Critical shortages have been noted in such subjects as mathematics, science, and vocational education.

To obtain the best available teachers, principals must actively recruit individuals. Assuming that talented teachers are as interested in favorable working conditions as they are in salaries and benefits, principals must let prospective applicants know that their skills will be appreciated.

Once a strong faculty has been built, it must be maintained. Even the most capable teachers can lose touch with new developments in their fields or become complacent. Seeing that an active program of inservice activities is available on a continuing basis to teachers may be one of the principal's most critical leadership functions (Stallings, 1981). Inservice should not, however, be viewed as an "injection" which, when taken once in a large dose, will "cure" the faculty for a long period of time.

For this and other reasons, it is unwise for principals to rely on inservice solely as a mechanism by which their decisions can be imposed on faculty members. Teachers should be actively involved in planning and, in some cases, executing inservice activities. Not only are they more likely than the principal to know their needs, but the likelihood they actually will implement new ideas is greater if they are part of inservice decision making (Duke and Meckel, forthcoming).

The model of ongoing staff development that I most favor calls for principals to regard inservice activities as opportunities for teachers and other staff members to acquire the information they need to make sound decisions about personal and professional improvement. Principals should ensure that a variety of alternatives are presented and evaluated.

This model implies that the way to maintain a highly professional faculty is to treat teachers as if they were capable of exercising leadership. Principals must make teachers feel indispensable—a course of action that may require forfeiting their own claim to indispensability. Few feelings are quite as motivating as the sense that one is an essential and irreplaceable part of an organization. Building principals are in the best position to cultivate and reinforce this feeling.

Instructional Support

A second key leadership function for principals is instructional support, a rather broad rubric under which is subsumed time management, record keeping, classroom control, and a variety of other activities intended to maintain environments in which teaching and learning can occur. Teachers can readily distinguish between principals who provide instructional support and those who do

not. The latter, for example, fail to protect teachers from excessive paperwork and interruptions, thus reducing the time available for planning and direct instruction.

Teachers frequently complain that school meetings result in too much wasted time; time that otherwise might be spent with students or in preparation for class. Some faculty meetings are essential, however, for information sharing, decision making, and coordination. Principals familiar with group dynamics can increase the likelihood that meetings will run smoothly and efficiently (Gordon, 1977; Schmuck et al., 1977). Teachers can be trained to take an active part in facilitating group interaction.

Another aspect of instructional support where principals can make a difference is attendance (Duke, 1980; Duke and Meckel, 1980b; Stallings, 1981). When students cut class or are absent from school without a legitimate excuse they typically miss assignments and fall behind their classmates. Teachers then must take time away from direct instruction to help them catch up. Chronic absentees frequently drop so far behind that they have little choice but to give up or drop out. Principals who devote energy to monitoring attendance, keeping parents informed, and maintaining systematic management plans designed to minimize unnecessary absenteeism contribute greatly to instructional effectiveness.

Perhaps the most important instructional support function which principals can provide is the establishment of an atmosphere of orderliness throughout the school. Recent research suggests that orderliness is critical to student achievement, and the principal is the key to its realization (Duke and Seidman, 1982; Edmonds, 1981; Gottfredson and Daiger, 1979; National Institute of Education, 1978).

Students cannot be expected to learn efficiently if they are fearful of being victimized, subject to frequent disruptions in class, or easily tempted to break rules. Teachers cannot be expected to teach effectively if they must spend valuable time dealing with student behavior problems and if they fail to receive administrative backing. Establishing orderly classrooms depends to a great extent on the establishment of an orderly school environment.

To this end, principals can see that rules are collaboratively determined and publicized; consequences for breaking rules are specified and enforced; and procedures are in place for resolving conflicts and disagreements (Duke, 1980; Jones and Jones, 1981). They also can assist teachers in refining classroom management skills and in involving parents in the resolution of problems.

Resource Acquisition and Allocation

Adequate learning materials, appropriate facilities, and skilled support personnel are essential to instructional effectiveness. In studies of high schools confronted by fiscal stress and retrenchment, some principals seem to be able to secure adequate resources while others helplessly watch their operating budgets shrink (Duke, Cohen, and Herman, 1981; Duke and Meckel, 1980a). Those who see that their teachers continue to get textbooks, ditto services, laboratory equipment, teacher

aides, and the like have learned how to cut through central office "red tape" and generate alternative funds. They cultivate close ties with their superiors and learn of the availability of new resources before colleagues do (Barsky, 1975).

Resource acquisition and allocation can be a critical leadership function even when schools are not experiencing retrenchment. Examples can be found of schools within the same district that differ in the resources they receive and the way resources are distributed. Many districts now permit building principals to play an active role in developing school budgets. Principals must assess the needs of their faculties. If resources are not allocated in ways that maximize the likelihood that school objectives will be achieved, the chances are great that some of the blame must rest with the principal.

To ensure that resources are allocated effectively, principals should initiate a continuous planning process that relies heavily on faculty input and the projection of future needs. If faculty losses are predicted for coming years, a principal with foresight may begin to encourage team teaching and an active volunteer program. If a school is scheduled to receive students with special learning needs, the principal can plan in advance to lobby for additional resources, possibly including teacher aides and other support staff.

Quality Control

All organizations, including schools, have a control structure to ensure that their objectives are achieved. The primary mechanisms for maintaining control are evaluation, supervision, rewards, and sanctions. Skilled principals know when to use which mechanisms to obtain quality performance from their staff members.

Given the emerging consensus among researchers that a crucial factor in instructional effectiveness is the communication of high expectations to all students, it becomes vital that principals—in their capacity as supervisors—communicate high expectations to teachers (Brookover et al., 1978). The latter should be regularly reminded of school objectives, evaluated, and rewarded when they achieve them. Teachers who consistently fail to achieve objectives, even after inservice opportunities designed to correct the situation, must be subjected to sanctions, including dismissal.

Principals must monitor student progress closely to determine the extent to which instruction is effective. They need to monitor what goes on behind the classroom door by using classroom observations, standardized test data, grades, teacher and counselor comments, and information concerning the activities of graduates. Since no administrator can accomplish this feat alone, except in very small schools, principals must learn to delegate responsibility for quality control. Assistant principals, department chairpersons, and teachers can be enlisted in efforts to assess progress.

At times the principal's quality control functions may bring him into direct contact with students. Providing official recognition for student achievement helps reinforce teachers' efforts. Sometimes principals initiate special pro-

grams with slogans designed to foster school pride in academic as well as extracurricular success.

Energy that once was reserved solely for athletic contests has been channeled into preparations for standardized achievement tests at Ribald High School in Jacksonville, Fla. The principal inaugurated "Beat the Test" pep rallies to stimulate students to take tests seriously.

As a result of principal initiative at Northern High School in Detroit, Mich., students wear buttons proclaiming "Northern—A School of Winners."

Public relations activities intended to create a shared sense that the business of the school is achievement probably represent some of the wisest investments a principal can make in the success of the school.

Coordination

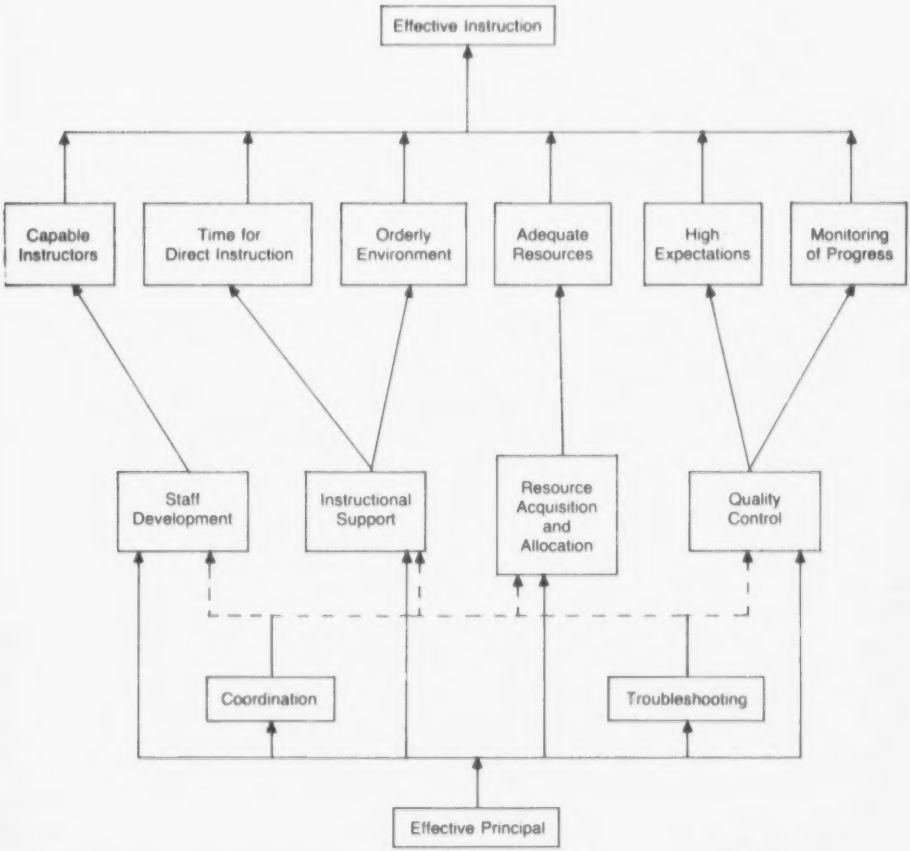
The leadership functions discussed so far generally are directly relevant to instructional activities. No less important, however, are those functions that call on principals to ensure that the entire school runs smoothly. Perhaps the central function in this regard is coordination—the actions necessary to ensure that the individual units of the school do not work at cross-purposes or duplicate operations. Principals must realize that teachers may actually be effective on an individual basis and yet undermine schoolwide efforts to achieve objectives.

The coordination function has become more complex as schools have employed more specialists and non-teaching personnel and as the number of special programs has grown (Duke and Seidman, 1982). It is not unusual for many schools to encompass a half dozen externally funded programs, including those for the disadvantaged, handicapped, migrant, and non-English-speaking. Frequently each program requires an advisory committee, annual planning and proposal writing, in-service, and evaluation. The more a principal can do to combine these common activities, the less likely are teachers to become stressed and overworked. Seeing that program specialists and non-instructional personnel share information regularly with classroom teachers can prevent teachers from growing resentful and uncooperative.

Coordination is needed among teachers as well as between teachers and support staff members. Examples of areas where instructional effectiveness can be enhanced by coordination include planning for school improvement, setting school rules, purchasing textbooks, developing curriculum goals, assigning homework, arranging teaching and classroom schedules, utilizing audio-visual resources, scheduling field trips and extracurricular activities, and preparing the annual school budget. The more principals draw their staff members into shared decision making concerning these and other matters of schoolwide significance, the more likely are teachers to feel a personal "stake" in the success of the whole school, rather than just their own classes.

A final area where coordination is important entails relations between the school and external forces, especially the central office and the community.

Leadership Functions and Instructional Effectiveness



Involving parents in school planning can lead to the kind of broad-based support so vital to the achievement of school objectives (Lipham and Fruth, 1976). Similarly, keeping central office staff members abreast of developments at the building level is important. Coordination between schools also is vital to instructional effectiveness, since the success of secondary schools is highly dependent on the kind of preparation students receive in earlier grades.

The principal is the key person in most efforts to see that close working relations are maintained between schools, central offices, and parents.

Newsletters, meetings, open houses, phone contacts, and gatherings in local homes are but some of the mechanisms principals can employ to foster coordination. It is likely that the future will find desk-top computers, electronic mail, and sophisticated telecommunications devices being used to supplement these conventional processes.

Troubleshooting

No matter how well-planned and coordinated a school is, problems occasionally will arise. Sometimes they derive from internal impetuses, such as misinterpreted communications, faculty turnover, or workload increases. Sometimes they result from developments external to the school, such as declining enrollments, new laws, and reductions in school funds. The likelihood that these problems will undermine instructional effectiveness is reduced when principals see that troubleshooting mechanisms for anticipating and resolving problems are in operation (Duke, 1980).

A variety of ways to troubleshoot are available to principals. They range from relatively formal approaches such as regular department meetings and a designated ombudsman to informal processes such as daily tours of the school and chats with students and staff members. Routine briefings with the management team before school begins each morning and debriefings each afternoon prevent administrators from becoming isolated or overly specialized.

Various techniques for improving communications within schools are presented in *The Second Handbook of Organization Development in Schools* (Schmuck et al., 1977). The authors suggest that one of the most critical roles a principal can play is that of "convener of organizational problem solving." This role requires a set of special skills, including describing behavior, checking perceptions, paraphrasing, and summarizing. Teachers and other staff members also can be trained in problem solving.

Once trained, staff members can be encouraged to develop contingency plans so that individuals will not be caught by surprise or left without a course of action when problems periodically occur. A school that anticipates problems and is prepared to deal with them before they get out of hand is one that is less likely to become sidetracked in its quest to achieve primary objectives.

Recognizing an Effective Principal

Effective principals traditionally have been described in terms of their personality traits (firm, but fair; decisive; sensitive) rather than functions or skills. As a result, it has been relatively difficult for observers to agree on what to look for when differentiating between more and less effective principals.

To assist principal-watchers in their efforts to recognize effective principals, some tips are offered in the form of questions. Representative questions are provided for each of the six leadership functions.

Staff Development

1. Does the principal possess a plan for recruiting the best possible teachers?
2. Is the staff encouraged to participate in inservice activities?

3. Does a plan exist for the regular offering of inservice opportunities?
4. Do staff members participate in decision making regarding inservice?
5. In what ways does the principal encourage teacher leadership?
6. How does the principal respond when a teacher is having trouble meeting instructional objectives?

INSTRUCTIONAL SUPPORT

1. What does the principal do to minimize the time teachers spend on paperwork, record keeping, and classroom management?
2. What does the principal do to minimize classroom interruptions?
3. Does the principal encourage teachers to clarify their classroom management goals and to develop classroom management plans?
4. What does the principal do to minimize student absenteeism?
5. Are noninstructional activities carefully scheduled so as not to interfere with classroom instruction?
6. Are regular efforts made to keep teachers, students, and parents aware of school rules and policies?
7. Are school rules reviewed regularly and are unnecessary rules eliminated?

RESOURCE ACQUISITION AND ALLOCATION

1. Are resources allocated on the basis of staff input?
2. Are efforts made to ensure that resources are allocated fairly within each classroom as well as among classes?
3. Does the principal participate in the development of the school and district budget?
4. Does the principal maintain close contact with his superiors?
5. How does the school's operating budget for materials compare with other local schools' budgets?
6. What does the principal do to generate additional sources of revenue?
7. Do teachers have the materials they need to initiate orderly learning on the first day of school?

QUALITY CONTROL

1. Does the school possess clear goals and objectives?
2. What does the principal do to see that the staff is aware of school goals and objectives?
3. What does the principal do to see that goals and objectives are being achieved?
4. What does the principal do to communicate high expectations to staff and students?
5. Does the staff have high and consistent expectations of the principal and are these communicated clearly?
6. What does the principal do to recognize staff and student achievement?
7. Does the principal regularly visit classrooms and meet with teachers?
8. What occurs when a particular student is not achieving according to expectations? (i.e., Is the first reaction to assess teaching or to find reasons why the student cannot learn?)
9. Do evaluation plans include provisions for assessing unintended negative outcomes?

COORDINATION

1. Does the principal regularly review the operations of each department?
2. What do the principal and staff do to minimize duplication among subunits of the school?
3. What does the principal do to see that staff members are aware of each other's activities and plans?
4. Does the principal delegate authority to his assistants and chairpersons to improve coordination?

5. What does the principal do to encourage schoolwide, systematic planning? Is time for planning made available to staff members?

TROUBLESHOOTING

1. What does the principal do to encourage staff members to anticipate problems before they arise?
2. Do contingency plans exist for each department and class?
3. Upon what sources of information does the principal rely for accurate feedback on staff, student, and community morale?
4. Are efforts made to obtain data from as close to the source of problems as possible?
5. What does the principal do to ensure advance warning of any changes in district policy?
6. What mechanisms exist for handling problems once they arise?
7. Are staff members trained in conflict resolution strategies?
8. To what extent does the principal actively involve staff in problem solving?

The preceding questions are based on the belief that there are specific actions that principals can take in order to increase instructional effectiveness. Such a belief supports the notion of special skills training for principals. In other words, effective building leadership does not result only or automatically from on-the-job, trial-and-error learning. During these times of increased visibility for principals and intensified public claims of educational mismanagement, school leaders may not be able to afford to make mistakes, at least ones that preservice or inservice training and planning could have prevented.

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Facing a Complex Dilemma

A Positive Approach to Academic Excellence

Administrators looking for programs to increase academic excellence while also promoting a positive learning environment will find a host of ideas here. The writers claim they will stimulate continued achievement once the initial goals are realized.

By John Childs and Jim McCoy

THE PREVAILING ATTITUDE in American education today is demanding higher academic standards and, in relationship to those standards, greater student achievement.

Responding to national studies and reports that were critical of the scholastic achievement in our schools, many state and local school boards have designed or are designing reform programs that are characterized by one or more of the following elements:

- More stringent graduation/academic requirements
- Student mastery of benchmark objectives
- Some kind of teacher performance/merit pay plan.

While most school administrators will agree with such reform measures in principle, they are faced with a complex dilemma: How can mandated productivity goals be achieved without damaging or compromising a positive learning environment within the school?

The following programs were designed to increase academic excellence while promoting a positive learning environment. The programs make maximum use of group participation, individual and group recognition, and comprehensive communication activities. They involve all of the participants in the school setting: students, teachers, administrators, and parents.

These programs are very conspicu-

John Childs is principal and Jim McCoy is assistant principal, Vernal (Utah) Middle School.

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ous, are well liked by the young adult groups they serve, and frequently ask students to compete against themselves.

Programs for Academic Excellence

- *Homework Club*. This club honors students who complete all of their homework assignments in all classes with a grade of "B" or better. Students are honored each quarter with a special certificate and a special activity (movie, water slide, dance, etc.).
- *Average Raisers Club* (ARC). This club honors students who raise their grade point average from the previous term by .5 on a grading scale of 4.0. Students receive a certificate and a special activity.
- *Academic Superstars*. Each week the school honors an academic superstar in a particular academic subject area. A bulletin board in the office area displays a picture of the student, biographical information, and candid snapshots of the student at work. A different academic area is selected each week.
- *Achievement Booster Club (ABC)*. Students who raise their percentile scores on the standardized achievement tests from the previous year gain membership in the ABC. The students' scores are compared to the national norm from one year to the next. Students are recognized with a special certificate.
- *Chamber of Commerce Young Scholars Club*. The school and the local Chamber of Commerce established a Young Scholars Club to recognize students with exceptionally high academic achievement. Students can be honored with a certificate, savings bond, and a night on the town. These are awarded on a semester or annual basis.
- *School Improvement Council Retreats*. One day each quarter, representatives from the faculty and school administrators go to a lodge, banquet room, convention room, etc., to brainstorm ways to improve the school. Substitutes cover classes for the day.
- *State of the School Assembly*. At the end of the first semester the principal delivers a short (20-25 minutes) message to students and faculty members. The message emphasizes the academic progress and accomplishments of the semester. High GPAs, standardized test scores, special academic honors, and individual academic progress can all be publicly recognized in an effort to promote academic achievement.
- *After-School Study Seminars*. Faculty members volunteer for regular, after-school study seminars to discuss special topics or problems in their subject area. These may be conducted as help sessions or as enrichment activities.
- *Display Student Products*. Student products are displayed throughout the school. Themes, test papers, posters, homework assignments, artwork, and crafts are in all the halls and foyers. All bulletin boards and display cases are used to recognize student achievement. Each department is assigned responsibility for a specific area of the school.
- *Publish Teacher Preparation Times*. Parents are informed of times when they might call or visit the teacher regarding their student's academic progress.

- *Quarterly Parent-Teacher Conferences.* A parent-teacher conference is held each quarter. Early-morning and evening conference times accommodate working parents.
- *Teacher of the Month.* One teacher is honored each month for the extra tasks, services, and commitments given to the school. The teacher can be selected by PTA parent advisory committee or special faculty/administration committee. A special certificate and a night on the town are awarded to the teacher of the month and his or her spouse.
- *Academic Assemblies.* Academic assemblies are scheduled on a regular basis. They feature local and state politicians, authorities on important subjects, and upbeat, motivational speakers. Academic assemblies are held before, during, and after school.
- *Subject Area Fairs.* Faculty and students in each subject area organize a fair to exhibit student research and/or creations. Organize your own school fair in each subject area and then host one for other schools in the city, district, or region.
- *Teacher Quarterly Report.* Teachers submit a report to the principal each quarter. They briefly describe the basic goals, curriculum, and special learning activities they will address in their classes for that quarter. The principal meets briefly with each teacher regarding his or her report.
- *Academic Standards Committee.* An active academic standards committee consists of administrators, teachers, students, and parents. The guidelines and policies of the committee have a binding effect, especially in the area of eligibility for participation in student activities.
- *Honors Banquet.* A special honors banquet is held at the end of the first semester and at year's end to honor students with GPAs of 3.75 or better. Parents, faculty, and administration attend. All honor students receive a commemorative certificate and exceptional honor students also receive a medal.
- *Professional Literature.* Administrators purchase a professional journal or magazine for each faculty member that relates to their specific teaching assignment.
- *Homework Policy.* Guidelines and policies governing homework have been established. For example, a uniform deduction of credit in all classes for late homework assignments is consistently applied on a schoolwide basis.
- *Attendance Policy.* Attendance policies encourage improved attendance but do not penalize a student's grade or credit.
- *Communicate High Academic Standards.* High academic standards are communicated to the faculty, students, and parents by a variety of methods, including posters, charts, letters, and memos.
- *School Visitations.* Administrators and faculty members visit model schools.
- *Citizenship Grades and Club.* Citizenship grades are used in the classroom to assess student attitude and deportment. Students receiving an honor citizenship mark in all their classes are members of the High "5" Honor Citizenship Club and are treated to special activities and recognition.

- *Gifted Program.* There is a program for gifted students. The program was established by a district committee of administrators, teachers, students, and parents.
- *Clinical Supervision.* The teacher supervision/evaluation program emphasizes the improvement of teaching skills.

These programs are unique in that the process and the product are essentially the same. Most of the programs are based on academic and/or institutional goals and, once achieved, stimulate continued achievement.

Scope of School Programs

Enrollment and Course Offerings

John Guenther
Patricia A. Hansen

Schools need to consider alternatives to traditional semester and year-long courses, conclude these authors, who base their advice on data collected in 1976-77 from high schools in four midwestern states.

THE "MIND-SET" THAT bigger is better has led many people to conclude that only large secondary schools can offer truly comprehensive programs. Despite small-school advocates' descriptions of how important small classes, interpersonal communications, and greater opportunities for participation are to the educational process, the bottom line of curriculum continues to be the scope of the school's course offerings.

Current recommendations that high schools be reduced in size suggests that other forms of school organization will have to be utilized and that programs organized exclusively into semester and year-long courses have questionable viability. New models need to be conceptualized and operationalized. This process involves, of course, a fairly complete understanding of current program organizations and the scope of course offerings in high schools of various sizes. While the type and variety of course offerings is only one measure of school programs, the authors believe that it is important to determine that real differences do exist in schools of various enrollment classifications.

John Guenther is associate professor, School of Education, University of Kansas, Lawrence. Patricia A. Hansen is faculty adviser and special in-house consultant at the Lincoln Academy of Accelerated Studies, a magnet school in Kansas City, Mo.

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Assuming that change can more likely be brought about if schools know where they are in relation to everyone else, the reader is urged to consider the following questions:

- How may different courses are offered in high schools of various enrollment classifications? Given the same method of organizing programs, what difference does size make?
- Is there a balance of course offerings in the different subject areas?
- Are most courses a year or semester in length?
- Have schools attempted to expand their subject offerings by developing mini-course programs?

Given existing conditions, curriculum planning and program revision at the high school level may be made more effective, and deemed more necessary, if educators charged with those responsibilities are given the opportunity to examine the scope of course offerings in a number of other schools. This information, although not always readily accessible, is of value to the planning process. The authors believe that such information will serve to further indicate the need for new and different forms of program organizations, particularly in small schools.

Study Objectives and Procedures

Briefly stated, the purpose of this article is to describe program organizations and the scope of course offerings in high schools of different enrollment classifications. Hopefully, the study reported in this article will answer the previously stated questions.

To collect the necessary information, a random sample of 400 high schools was selected from directories provided by the state departments of education in Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska. The principals were asked to send their most recent set of course descriptions.

A total of 265 principals (66%) responded. Each participating principal received an 87-page handbook detailing the results of the study. A follow-up letter gave the non-responders the opportunity to indicate if their schools had course descriptions that could be utilized in the study. Sixty-five principals (16%) responded that course descriptions were not available. In total, 330 responses (83%) were received.

The 265 schools were assigned to one of the five enrollment classifications, each classification having 53 schools. The classifications were as shown in the table.

All 265 sets of course descriptions were analyzed and tabulated by the writers. Only high school non-vocational (9-12, 10-12) courses were included in the study.

Classification	*Enrollment Range*	*Average*
1	45- 160	111
2	162- 266	209
3	269- 402	327
4	410- 757	562
5	760-3,654	1,364

Enrollment and Traditional-Length Courses

Figure 1 provides a profile of the traditional-length offerings (semester/year) in 10 pre-selected subject areas. The profile, the authors believe, indicates dramatic differences in the scope of offerings in the different enrollment classifications.

Rather than present the reader with a complex table, the authors have elected to present the general results in a bar graph that they hope is fairly self-explanatory. Some additional information, not included in the graph, will be presented in the narrative.

The 265 high schools were offering a total of 17,405 different traditional-length courses in the 10 subject areas. Of that number, 55 percent were a school year in length.

As expected, the number of different course offerings increased substantially from the smallest to the largest schools. For example, Classification 1 schools were offering 2,178 courses, or only 13 percent of the total offerings across all five enrollment classifications. By contrast, Classification 5 schools were offering 5,921 (34%) courses. Only in Classification 5 did semester-length courses outnumber year-length courses.

For the most part, semester courses represent electives and subject options. The smaller the schools the more likely that their programs are organized into year-long courses. Full unit courses, despite the need to be more responsive to the individual needs and interests of students, still represent the organizational model for the majority of high schools in the midwest.

The distribution of course offerings in each subject area is generally the same in each enrollment classification with the obvious exception of the foreign languages and art. The length of the course offerings varies considerably from subject area to subject area. The smallest percentage of semester-length courses, in relation to year-long courses, was in the subject areas of math, science, and the foreign languages.

As indicated in Figure 2, the average number of different course offerings varies considerably from classification to classification.

Figure 1
Profile of Traditional Length Course Offerings in Each Subject Area

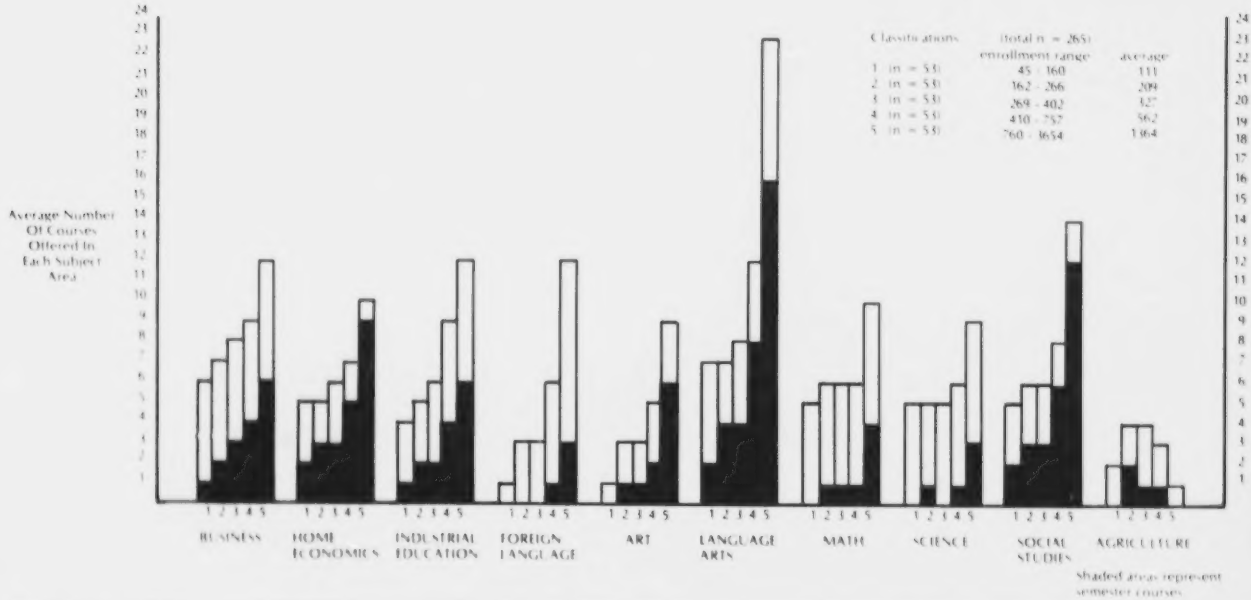
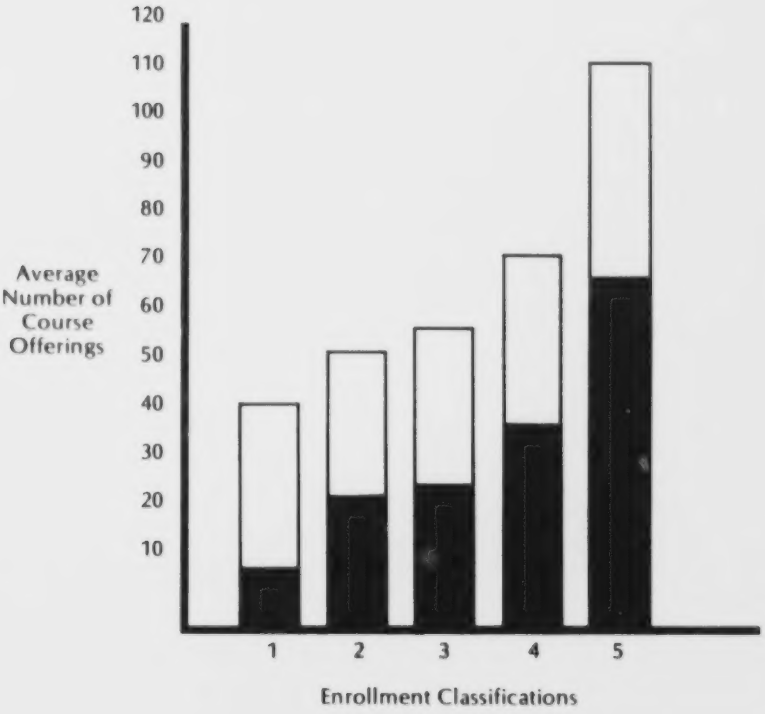


Figure 2
Profile of Total Subject Offerings



Shaded areas represent semester courses

While less than 40 courses were offered in the 10 subject areas in Classification 1 schools, Classification 5 schools were offering more than 110 traditional length courses for their students. This difference is even more significant since most Classification 5 schools follow a 10-12 organizational plan and the ninth grade offerings are not included in the totals. Again, as clearly indicated in the graph, semester length offerings remain in the minority in all but the largest schools.

Although the variety of offerings is only one measure of program viability, the authors believe that the evidence shows the need to consider

other organizational alternatives. Program flexibility facilitates the process of meeting the individual needs and interests of students. Although the authors believe strongly that "concise" courses can assist in the individualization of instruction, the purpose of this article is not to "champion" the development of minicourse programs but rather to report how some schools are addressing this concern through programs incorporating this organizational alternative.

Minicourse Programs

The remainder of this article will describe how some schools have responded to the need to offer a greater variety of courses by establishing minicourse programs. Minicourses are defined, in this instance, as regularly scheduled credit courses that are less-than-a-semester in length.

Table 1 discloses the frequency and percent of minicourse programs in the 10 subject areas and five enrollment classifications. For purposes of this analysis, it was assumed that 265 (schools) x 10 (subject areas) represented 2,650 program possibilities. A school was considered to have a program if it was offering at least one minicourse in the subject area.

A total of 338 minicourse programs (13%) had been established in the participating schools. The greatest number of programs were in enrollment classifications 2 and 4. The option of offering minicourses to supplement traditional-length courses had not been exercised in the majority of schools. Unfortunately, Classification 1 schools, where the fewest course options exist, still follow a traditional organizational pattern. Classification 5 schools have the enrollment and staff to offer a large number of semester electives for students. The authors believe that small schools need to seriously consider other organizational patterns. There is little reason to continue with an organizational plan that allows for few subject options and restricts program flexibility.

Although not indicated in Table 1, 100 schools (33%) were offering minicourses in at least one subject area. The greatest number of programs had been initiated in the language arts (28%), social studies (23%), and home economics (17%). The fewest number of programs were in agriculture (3%), foreign language (5%), and science (9%). The pattern is essentially the same for the organization of traditional-length offerings into semester and year courses.

Enrollment and Minicourse Offerings

There were 4,181 separate minicourses being offered in the 338 minicourse programs. As disclosed in Table 2, the greatest number of

Table 1
Minicourse Programs by High School Enrollment and Subject Area

Subject	Class. 1		Class. 2		Class. 3		Class. 4		Class. 5		Total**	
	f	%*	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Business	3	5	8	15	7	13	8	15	8	15	34	13
Home Economics	2	4	15	28	9	17	10	19	9	17	45	17
Industrial Education	3	5	10	19	5	10	7	13	5	10	30	11
Foreign Language	0	0	3	5	4	8	4	8	3	5	14	5
Art	2	4	8	15	7	13	5	9	6	11	28	11
Language Arts	5	9	17	32	18	34	20	38	14	26	74	28
Math	2	4	2	4	6	11	7	15	6	11	23	9
Science	1	2	6	11	3	5	6	11	7	13	23	9
Social Studies	3	5	13	25	12	23	19	36	13	25	60	23
Argiculture	0	0	3	5	0	0	2	4	2	4	7	3
Total***	21	4	85	16	71	13	88	17	73	14	338	13

*Frequency and percent of high schools in each enrollment classification offering minicourses in each subject area (N = 53).
**N = 265
***Total frequency and percent of minicourse program in all subject areas – 10 subject areas × 53 schools = 530 program possibilities in each enrollment classification.

courses were offered in enrollment classifications 4 (1,321), 3 (1,040), and 2 (915).

The language arts (42%) and social studies (22%) accounted for nearly two-thirds of all mini-course offerings. The number of course offerings in each enrollment classification reflects the same pattern revealed in Table 1. Schools in Classification 1 (X = 111) were offering only 115 minicourses, or three percent of all minicourses offered in the 338 programs.

Average Number of Minicourses

The writers have attempted to profile both traditional-length and minicourse offerings and programs in 265 midwestern high schools. The average number of semester-length and year-length courses in the 10 subject areas and 265 participating schools were:

Classification	*Semester*	*Year*	*Total*
1	8	33	41
2	19	32	51
3	20	35	55
4	34	36	70
5	66	46	112

The reader is reminded that the numbers represent different offerings and do not consider the number of sections or frequency of offerings.

An average of 12.4 courses were being offered in the 338 minicourse programs. The subject area average, as indicated in Table 3, ranged from 23.7 courses in the language arts to 4.1 courses in agriculture. Classification 3 and 4 schools offered the largest average number of courses.

Interestingly, only a few schools have totally organized their programs into minicourses. The vast majority of schools offer the traditional-length courses in concert with their minicourse programs.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the purpose of this article has been to describe the organization of high school programs and the scope of course offerings in schools of different enrollment classifications. It is evident that midwestern high schools are traditionally organized. A total analysis of the sets of course descriptions and enrollment guides indicate little that could be called innovative in terms of program organization. The

Table 2
High School Enrollments and Minicourse Offerings

Subject	Class. 1		Class. 2		Class. 3		Class. 4		Class. 5		Total	
	N	%*	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%**
Business	13	5	51	18	44	15	133	47	44	15	285	7
Home Economics	9	3	105	34	67	22	76	25	49	16	306	7
Industrial Education	4	2	36	17	59	27	68	31	51	23	218	5
Foreign Language	0	0	11	11	35	34	48	47	8	8	102	2
Art	8	4	50	24	62	30	65	31	22	11	207	5
Language Arts	51	3	403	23	467	27	525	30	309	18	1755	42
Math	3	2	3	2	35	26	45	33	50	37	136	3
Science	3	1	53	22	37	16	81	34	62	26	236	6
Social Studies	24	3	181	20	234	26	278	31	190	21	907	22
Agriculture	0	0	22	76	0	0	2	7	5	17	29	1
Total	115	3	915	22	1040	25	1321	32	790	19	4181	100 ±

*Number of minicourse offerings in each subject area and percent of total offerings across all enrollment classifications.
**Percent of total offerings (4181) by subject area.

Table 3
Average Number of Minicourse Offerings
by Subject Area and Enrollment Classification

Subject	Class. 1		Class. 2		Class. 3		Class. 4		Class. 5		Total	
	N*	$\bar{X}$**	N	$\bar{X}$	N	$\bar{X}$	N	$\bar{X}$	N	$\bar{X}$	N	$\bar{X}$
Business	3	4.3	8	6.4	7	6.3	8	16.6	8	5.5	34	8.4
Home Economics	2	4.5	15	7.0	9	7.4	10	7.6	9	5.4	45	6.8
Industrial Education	3	1.3	10	3.6	5	11.8	7	9.7	5	10.2	30	7.3
Foreign Language	0	0	3	3.7	4	8.8	4	12.0	3	2.7	14	7.3
Art	2	4.0	8	6.3	7	8.9	5	13.0	6	3.7	28	7.4
Language Arts	5	10.2	17	23.7	18	25.9	20	26.3	14	22.1	74	23.7
Math	2	1.5	2	1.5	6	5.8	7	6.4	6	8.3	23	5.9
Science	1	3.0	6	8.8	3	12.3	6	13.5	7	8.9	23	10.3
Social Studies	3	8.0	13	13.9	12	19.5	19	14.6	13	14.6	60	15.1
Agriculture	0	0	3	7.3	0	0	2	1.0	2	2.5	7	4.1
Total	21	5.5	85	10.8	71	14.6	88	15.0	73	10.8	338	12.4

*Number of high schools offering minicourses in each subject area.
**Average number of minicourses offered in each high school subject area.

authors believe that the information contained in this article clearly points out the need to consider other alternatives to traditional semester and year-long courses. Although minicourses represent only one of a series of organizational options, they should be given a fair try, even on an experimental basis.

Content and learning style options can obviously be accommodated within 18 and 36-week courses. This is, however, an extremely difficult proposition. In many cases the very nature of traditional organizations mitigates against the individualization of instruction. It is obvious that there are tremendous differences in the number of credit options given students within the different enrollment classifications. The authors hope that this article will serve as the impetus for schools to explore seriously other organizational alternatives to the pattern that has become entrenched in our educational process.

Rural School Innovations: Preparation, Awareness, Adoption

The needs of rural educators have for too long been overlooked, say these writers, who on the following pages look at current practices and perceptions of such persons.

By Rodney Oelschlager and John Guenther

For decades following the Industrial Revolution in the United States, demographers noted the migration of people from rural to urban areas. Modern agricultural technology increased production, but decreased the need for farm labor. Urban centers with large labor markets offered greater potential for employment and advancement.

By the end of World War II, the migration from rural to urban centers had accelerated, and subsequently, the educational community turned its attention from the rural to the urban student. The result has been what Jonathan Sher (1978) calls "decades of relative obscurity" for rural education.

However, in the early 1970s a remarkable population shift occurred in the United States. From 1970 to 1973, nonmetropolitan areas experienced a 4.2 percent population growth, compared to a 2.9 percent growth for metropolitan areas. Demographers predict that this trend will continue for at least the next several decades. This prediction has direct implications for teacher preservice and inservice planning for the 1980s.

During the past 20 years rural teachers have suffered from the neglect of rural education. The urgency with which an increasing number of educators view the current neglect of rural education is reflected in professional lit-

Rodney Oelschlager and John Guenther are in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, The University of Kansas, Lawrence.

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erature. Sher (1978) illustrates the concern shared by most educators:

> After decades of relative obscurity, issues relating to education in rural areas are enjoying a minor renaissance across the country. The origins of this renewed interest are unclear, but seem (at least in part) to flow from larger concerns about balanced growth and rural development, a new appreciation of cultural pluralism, skepticism about the quality and efficacy of large schools and urban models of education, and the irony of "progressive" urban and suburban school systems embracing traditional rural practices (e.g., individualized instruction, cross-age grouping, and peer teaching).
>
> Whatever the origins, the most salient fact now is that this consensus is emerging: Rural education is worthy of significantly more attention and assistance than researchers, policy makers, and educators have accorded it in the recent past. This consensus represents an opportunity that we shouldn't squander.

Sher's warning must be heeded and important decisions made concerning the future of rural schools. However, in order to establish appropriate procedures for future research and planning, it seems expedient to first determine the existing practices and perceptions of rural educators.

Use of Innovative Practices

A number of recurring trends in innovation for rural schools have emerged recently. According to Everett Edington (1976) one trend is that in attempting to improve educational quality, rural schools have repeatedly tried to adopt programs that have been designed for urban environments. Such practices ignore the fact that educational innovations are unique and must be evaluated in terms of their dissemination potential.

According to Edington, another trend in innovation has been in the form of consolidation. Attempts at the consolidation of small schools have proven less than satisfactory as a means to improve curriculum. However, local resistance to consolidation has created a promising alternative for innovation. As Edington (1976) states:

> The most promising of the new structures has been the development of a program which allows a number of small districts to share services by virtue of an intermediate district or unit, thus enabling a district to maintain its identity and still provide the advantages inherent in a larger consolidated organization. Such a program is accomplished by: (1) a cooperative agreement between the schools; (2) shared school resources; or (3) imposition of a larger administrative unit upon the small school for purposes of coordinating the activities of each school.

One researcher reported that rural schools tended to be less innovative than urban schools. The primary reason was that little effort was directed at designing innovation appropriate to the rural school setting. Individualized instruction was suggested as the most relevant innovation for rural educators, but such practices are rarely tested in rural schools. Considering the well-documented lack of interest by government and commercial interests, decision making is often left to traditional and often apathetic school boards.

A recent study conducted at the University of Kansas (Oelschlager, 1980) supports this statement. Questionnaires were mailed to the principals of the 200 smallest high schools (grades 9-12) in

the state of Kansas. Private and parochial schools were omitted from the study, since many of these schools are in metropolitan areas of the state. The principals were asked to indicate the extent to which 22 innovative practices listed on the questionnaire were used by faculty members in their school.

One hundred forty-eight principals (74 percent) responded to the survey. This accounted for 1,933 teachers. The results indicate that despite their popularity in professional literature, innovative practices are not widespread in rural Kansas schools. Responses indicated that the actual percentage of teachers using the various innovations was extremely small. In fact, of the 22 innovations listed, only one (out-of-school experiences) was used by more than 50 percent of the teachers in the survey. From this figure, the percentage of teachers using each innovation declined steadily. Notable exceptions included multi-grade levels in classes (31.9 percent), and student aides in the classroom (28.3 percent). The percentage of teachers currently using the 22 innovations is shown in Table 1.

Need for Specialized Teacher Training

Despite the fact that rural teachers constitute one-third of the total U.S. teaching force, the vast majority of teacher training programs are aimed at the urban teacher.

Findings by the Texas Education Agency indicate that heavy teacher workloads necessitated by limited staffing caused heavy teacher turnover in most rural schools. Although the oversupply of teachers in the early 1970s helped ameliorate this problem for urban schools, such was not the case for rural schools. Additional studies by the Texas Education Agency and the Oregon State Board of Education indicated that new teachers generally preferred employment in metropolitan areas. Those taking rural positions generally intended to stay only a short time. The reasons for their preferences varied from teacher to teacher. However, they tended to emigrate from low salaries, poor physical facilities, and the "inconvenience" of living in rural communities.

In one survey, rural teachers indicated the following areas as requiring the most improvement in their preservice education:

1. More practical methods courses.
2. Learning to teach with minimum facilities.
3. More preparation in guidance and counseling of students.
4. Better preparation in a broader sense of subject-matter fields.
5. Added courses in rural culture and sociology.
6. Ability to teach several grades in the same classroom.

Of the rural teachers surveyed in this study, 75.4 percent felt they were inadequately prepared to teach in rural areas. Obviously, the responsibility for inadequate preparation falls on the various teacher-training institutions serving rural areas.

Additional proof of the lack of appropriate preservice training for rural teachers is found in a study conducted by William Drier (1976) at the University of Northern Iowa. Drier conducted a comprehensive and informative study on the preparation of rural teachers in Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska.

A questionnaire concerning the availability of specialized teacher training for rural teachers was sent to the 92 member institutions of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE). The results indicated that only four of the member institutions had required programs to prepare teachers for rural areas, and only three of the institutions had graduate programs in rural education.

In the study conducted by Oelschlager (1980), it was noted that there is a considerable difference in the perceptions of rural educators concerning the need for specialized teacher training for rural teaching and the actual number of teachers who have received such training. For example, 66.7 percent of those surveyed indicated that they agreed with the need for special preservice/inservice training for rural teachers. However, of the 1,993 teachers included in the survey, fewer than three percent had received specialized training.

In the opinion of the authors, a preservice teacher preparation program for prospective teachers in rural secondary schools should provide, at a minimum, experiences which would enable the future teachers to:

1. Individualize instruction to capitalize on the small size of schools and expand course offerings.
2. Understand the dynamics of life in rural communities.
3. Effectively utilize the community as a laboratory for out-of-school learning.
4. Utilize resource people to enrich regular school programs.
5. Develop and adapt curriculum to fit the needs of students in rural communities (rural relevancy).
6. Develop self-directed professional development practices.
7. Function as a manager of learning experiences.
8. Utilize a variety of audiovisual aids (technology) and other methods of delivering instruction to students.
9. Function as a counselor, particularly in the area of career guidance.
10. Teach basic skills at a minimally acceptable level.
11. Function effectively in community service areas other than teaching; e.g., local historian, para-legal adviser, etc.
12. Develop programs in "cultural enrichment."

Major Sources of Information/Dissemination

With the passage in 1965 of the Elementary and Secondary School Act, considerable funding became available to educators for the development and improvement of educational programs. The initial emphasis of the law centered on the creation of new programs. However, it became evident that program creation itself did not fulfill the full intent of the law. The emphasis changed from program creation to needs assessment and evaluation. It was soon apparent that along with evaluation came the need to disseminate information.

As dissemination procedures became more sophisticated, an increase in the amount of federal funding became available. Funds directed at dissemination could easily be defended in terms of cost effectiveness. As a result, research on dissemination of information established itself as a highly profitable activity in terms of school improvement.

In a previously identified study

Table 1
Percentage of Teachers Currently Using Innovations

Innovation		Percentage
1.	Out-of-school experiences	53.4%
2.	Multi-grade levels in classrooms	31.8%
3.	Student aides in the classroom	28.2%
4.	Local or regional newspapers in the classroom	13.4%
5.	Individual nondirected study	12.7%
6.	Learning centers	11.7%
7.	Instruction via television	11.2%
8.	Role-playing/socio-drama	09.8%
9.	Peer-mediated instruction	08.0%
10.	Work/study or on-site job training	07.8%
11.	Group nondirected study	07.5%
12.	Simulation	07.4%
13.	Self-instructional units	07.3%
14.	Contract learning	07.2%
15.	Nongraded classes including pass/fail	06.9%
16.	Extensive use of home visitation	06.4%
17.	Programed instruction	06.0%
18.	Interdisciplinary courses	05.1%
19.	Team or group teaching	04.6%
20.	Paraprofessionals in the classroom	03.2%
21.	Computer-assisted instruction	01.4%
22.	Amplified telephone instruction	00.6%

N = 1,933 teachers

(Oelschlager, 1980) most rural educators agreed with the need for such dissemination networks among rural schools. For example, 70.5 percent of the principals surveyed agreed that there is a need for a dissemination/diffusion network in rural schools.

In the same survey, the respondents were asked to rate a list of 10 major sources of information for rural educators. Their responses ranged from one which indicated "very useful" as a source of information to five indicating "not very useful" as a source of information. The results for each source of information are included in Table 2.

It should be noted that teachers (colleagues in your school) were rated highest as a source of information for most rural educators. Other teacher-oriented sources also ranked high in the list of sources, including inservice workshops, special workshops or institutes, professional literature, and college courses. Only publishers' advertisements and publishers' agents were rated "not very useful" as sources of information. Results such as these should have a definite impact on planning for preservice and particularly inservice training for rural educators.

Conclusion

The current status of rural education

Table 2
Value of Information Sources

Source of Information		Mean Score
1.	Colleagues (teachers in your school)	1.804
2.	Inservice workshops	1.942
3.	Special workshops or institutes	1.978
4.	Professional literature	2.058
5.	College courses	2.226
6.	Colleagues (administrators in your school)	2.396
7.	Colleagues (administrators outside your school)	2.577
8.	Colleagues (teachers outside your school)	2.659
9.	Publishers' mailings	3.446
10.	Publishers' agents	3.737

1 = very useful
2 = generally useful
3 = somewhat useful
4 = not very useful
5 = not useful

in America demands more attention than it has been given in the past 20 to 30 years. The National Assessment of Educational Progress noted in 1977 that rural children score significantly lower than urban children in almost every subject area. A multitude of important decisions will need to be made in the next few years concerning the future of our rural schools.

This article has addressed three important areas of concern, and is based on the premise that before we can plan appropriately for the future of rural education, we must first establish the existing practices and perceptions of professionals in the field.

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Microcomputers in a Small Rural Junior High? You Bet!

Desire, flexibility, time, and staff commitment are the ingredients essential to successful incorporation of computers in the curriculum. That's the opinion of these writers, who describe their experience here.

By Bud Root, George Weber, and Donna Nelson

The small, rural community of Steamboat Springs is located in the splendid, semi-isolated solitude of the Yampa Valley of Northwestern Colorado. The town is perhaps better known for the number of Olympic skiers it has produced than for the computer curriculum that exists in its junior high school.

In the spring of 1981, a decision was made to purchase microcomputers for use in the school district. This recommendation was made after careful study of the type, number, distribution, and the way the computers were going to be used.

Bud Root is principal, George Weber is a science teacher, and Donna Nelson is a math teacher, all at Steamboat Springs (Colo.) Junior High School.

Getting There

Consequently, in our junior high school, we found ourselves with eight microcomputers, an enrollment of more than 350 students in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades—and much staff enthusiasm. We now have an enrollment of more than 400 students, 17 microcomputers, and a well-planned computer literacy program.

How did we get to where we are today?

The first item in climbing our "high tech" ladder was to establish a "Computer Unit" of literacy for students. Two teachers designed a computer training program requiring 10 hours of instruction.

Upon completion of this unit of study, the student is given a test to qualify for a "computer license." A student may take the test as many times as nec-

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essary, but a perfect score is a must!

In some cases the computer license is worth more to the student than a successful report card. We have discovered, much to our surprise, that more than 250 students qualified for a license during the first year of our program. By obtaining this license, the students are able to use the computers at any time—before school, during the noon hour, and after school. They are not restricted to direct teacher supervision. However, a secretary trained in computer operation is always present whenever a student is using the computers.

Upon completion of this unit of study, the student is given a test to qualify for a "computer license." A student may take the test as many times as necessary, but a perfect score is a must!

The students were "into" the microcomputers quickly, but the majority of the staff were not. We desperately needed an inservice program. The inservice program encompassed two sessions, and was much more condensed in format than was the student program. We wanted the staff to have firsthand experience in their specific subject matter areas as quickly as possible.

Big Success

The results were astounding! Teachers who were not familiar with a typewriter keyboard were fascinated by the software programs that related to their subject areas. With the correlation established, some staff members went beyond basic literacy and starting writing their own programs. Other faculty members are using prepared software packages.

Some faculty members have used grade book programs for record keeping. A summer school program was started on LOGO and BASIC programming skills for students. Several teachers enrolled in these classes, and all student-teacher barriers broke down as students helped teachers, and teachers helped students, learn the programming skills.

Our school has a 15-station computer laboratory, which works well as there are never more than two students to a computer. They help one another, and the lab is in constant use. One unit is placed in the Media Center for faculty use as well as select student use. The media personnel use the computer for overdue notices on books, word processing, and cataloging. Another unit in the office is used for word processing and record keeping.

In addition, a class in computer programming has evolved, and microcomputer technology is being taught in the science classes.

The programming class (BASIC) is a direct outgrowth of student interest. Students are not permitted to play "games" on the computers, and this has posed very little problem as our experience has shown that students quickly tire of such games, and actually prefer the software that challenges them academically. Thus, the student interest in programming was evident, and in mathematics classes each student is being exposed to programming in LOGO.

The technology unit is a natural outgrowth of student interest on "what's

inside" and "how does it work?" This unit will be included as part of our science curriculum as a hands-on experience for students.

Several teachers enrolled in these classes, and all student-teacher barriers broke down as students helped teachers, and teachers helped students, learn the programming skills.

Some of our students are involved in nationwide computer contests for literacy and programming abilities. This brings them closer to the real world of computer technology, as it takes them from the confines of the school to much larger applications of the technology. In addition, some students have proceeded to PASCAL programming.

Conclusion

Our district is committed to a continuous progress curriculum, and we have discovered that in our own structure, through creative and willing staff involvement, we can develop a computer curriculum for students that will allow them greater skill development in that technological arena to the best of their ability.

In summary, a school can achieve the technological results if they have the desire, flexibility, time, and above all, interested staff members who are readily available to develop a computer curriculum.

Sharing Technology: Keeping Small Rural Schools Alive

Technology may provide the answer to the problems encountered by small, rural schools in providing quality programs for their students. Shared technology, cable television, and microwave transmission are the possibilities discussed in the following three articles.

By Gary L. Nytes and Paul Musegades

TELECOMMUNICATION AND educational networking have allowed even small schools to access many of the great information sources in the country. For a relatively small investment, extensive research sources can be accessed through the use of an information data base. Today, the skills necessary to find information are more important than knowing the information itself.

Educational television is fast becoming a very useful tool in many classrooms. The satellite dish can allow teachers to supplement lessons with information from the available television stations, which currently number in excess of 135. As quality and quantity continue to expand, so also will the educational uses of this communication medium.

Two-way interactive television and interactive video hold much promise for small rural schools. The two-way interactive television allows the students from several districts to see, speak, and interact with each other as well as the instructor.

Robotics is fast becoming the most popular field for students interested in a technical future. Students and teachers alike find this technology to be a most interesting, exciting, and rewarding means of applying previous knowledge.

Technology in the Classroom

In the past, every new technology has fallen short of its anticipated success; some of the technologies have even failed.

Putting a television set in every class-

Gary L. Nytes is superintendent, Gibbon (Minn.) School System, and Paul Musegades is IN-TECH coordinator for the State of Minnesota.

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room was unsuccessful not because the TV did not work, or because we overestimated its ability to accomplish what we hoped it would do, but rather because we did not put forth the effort necessary to fully utilize it.

Robotics is fast becoming the most popular field for students interested in a technical future.

The major problem facing educational technology today for schools of all sizes is the integration of technology into the classroom. A massive effort is needed to get the available technology out of the classroom corner, to dust it off, and to put it to work in the instruction of students. If the threads of technology are woven throughout the curriculum the student will graduate with a working knowledge of the correct uses of technology. Spending money to ensure wise use of the technology we now have is far more important than spending more money on additional technology that will sit idle.

Small rural schools cannot do it alone. A coordination of efforts between neighboring school districts will reduce costs while providing for an improved program.

Developing the Integration Model

Small rural schools should begin by entering into joint powers agreements and forming a technology cooperative. Once an agreement is established, the following steps should be followed:

1. *Establish a Technology Advisory Committee.* Three people from each district should be members of the technology cooperative—one administrator or school board member, one teacher, and one interested school district resident. The major functions of this committee will be to reflect the current and future technological needs of the communities they represent, and to employ a technology coordinator. The technology coordinator will be an ex-officio member of the committee while supplying the necessary leadership to achieve the goals established by the advisory committee.
2. *Establish a system of "Key Demonstration Resource People" (KDRP).* Each school district has some people who are already integrating technology into their classrooms. Combining the talents and knowledge of these people into a body of technology resource consultants will allow for a coordinated effort. One school may have a possible KDRP in math, another in science or art. The technology coordinator, with the aid of principals, should seek these people out and take applications for the position of KDRP. Successful applicants should be trained by the coordinator and used as technology integrators throughout the cooperative.
3. *Train the teachers.* The technology coordinator, using the Key Demonstration Resource People, will train all teachers within the cooperative in the operation and integration of technology into their classrooms. The major thrust will be to move from computer literacy to using available technology as instructional tools.

Before school starts, KDRPs will

train all the people teaching in their specialty area, help them to get established, and then serve as consultants as the school year progresses. KDRPs should receive compensation in addition to their regular teaching salary.

4. *Provide the necessary hardware and software.* The technology cooperative will be able to purchase hardware, software, and peripherals at special group prices. Software publishers should be contacted so that duplication rights and multiple-copy user rights can be obtained for the cooperative's member districts. A software review policy and procedure should be developed, adopted, and utilized.

   A software library of no fewer than 30 of the best software packages in each subject area and at each grade level should be provided by the cooperative to its members. The software library should contain enough copies of each program to supply a computer lab. When a teacher in a certain subject area desires a specific software package, the multiple-copy package can be checked out and used.

5. *Evaluate and Improve upon the Integration Process.* The technology advisory committee should establish a method of evaluation and use the results to improve the process and its outcomes.

Conclusion

Administrators of small rural schools must become leaders in the effort to integrate technology into the classroom. Once integration is achieved, the size of the school or the class within the school will no longer dictate the quality of the program, and the future of the small rural school will be assured.

Instructional Television Consortium

Linking Smaller Schools for a More Effective Curriculum

By Don E. Siegmund and Joel McFadden

SOME SMALL RURAL high schools have insufficient enrollments to permit a full range of curricular offerings on a continuous basis. Consolidation seems to be the most popular alternative, but is it the best solution?

For four northwestern Illinois high schools with total enrollment of approximately 500, the best solution was

Don E. Siegmund is principal at Lanark (Ill.) High School. Joel McFadden is superintendent for Lanark District #305.

to form the Carroll Instructional Television Consortium.

The districts were joined by a common cable television system, which made it possible for administrators to form an instructional cooperative and develop an interactive cable linkage of teachers and students through simultaneous two-way video and audio communication available on the cable. In this way, the faculty and curricular resources of the several schools were made available to all.

Some of the benefits the districts expected from this project were:

1. Some of the best teachers would be exposed to a larger number of students, making their contributions much more valuable

It eliminates not only the major costs of transportation, but also wasted time and scheduling conflicts caused by transporting students and/or teachers.

2. This system would force comparisons and evaluations of the prerequisites for the courses offered
3. Lesson preparation would be enhanced since this program would be viewed by all four communities
4. New courses could be introduced into the curriculum
5. Since all participating high schools were experiencing declining enrollments, present courses could be maintained
6. A class can be offered at more than one period during the day and therefore, more students have access.

When school opened for the 1983-84 school year, classes were held via cable television in chemistry, physics, advanced senior math, Spanish I, Spanish III, and shorthand. Three classes were taught from Milledgeville High School on cable channel 36, three from Lanark High School on channel 35, one class from Shannon High School on channel 34, and listening and viewing only from Chadwick High School on channel 33. Each school could transmit and/or receive a video picture of either the class or the teacher and any class members present in the host school.

During the 1984-85 school year the following courses were offered: Spanish I, Spanish II, Spanish IV, advanced senior math, chemistry, and shorthand. The courses offered are considered upper level electives, and most students enrolled in these courses are academically talented and enjoy learning.

Ideal class size for the receiving school was eight students. In some cases, where enrollment was larger, schools enlisted the help of a teacher aide to monitor tests, collect and dispense material, etc. The instructor can see all of the students on the television monitor and there have been no problems with discipline or cheating.

One advantage of the system is the taping capabilities. If instructors know ahead of time that they are going to be absent, they tape their class presentation, thus no class time is lost. If a student is absent or if one or more schools involved in the program is not in session, the class is taped and students can view the class at their leisure. If students are ill and have cable TV in their home

they can observe the class at home. Extra help is afforded any student needing or desiring it.

This system is available before school, after school, or during the school day as long as no other class is being presented. The before and after school time is very popular.

Inservice meetings are held throughout the year to assure that preliminary preparation of the student is adequate for them to enroll in the TV classes. For example: the math teachers from each school meet periodically to coordinate their material, speed, goals, objectives, etc., so that when an advanced class is offered via the cable system, all students will be prepared to take it.

The use of technology, especially involving interactive two-way cable television, will be the salvation of small rural districts in this country.

The cost of setting up the program was approximately $15,000 per district in the first year. Most of the expenditures were for equipment and were largely offset by a Chapter II Grant. System maintenance costs between $3,000 and $4,000 per year with the bulk of this money used for renting the cable channels and university consultants who periodically evaluate the instructional quality of the programs and the attitudes of students, teachers, and community members.

As with all new programs and technology, the system has caused some apprehension and doubt among traditional educators. However, cable instructional television has been accepted and perceived as the mode of instruction for the future.

The system solved an enormous problem that has plagued small schools for quite some time. Students do not have to be transported long distances to obtain a quality education. It eliminates not only the major costs of transportation, but also wasted time and scheduling conflicts caused by transporting students and/or teachers. The two-way television consortium represents a technologically acceptable method for sharing instructional resources, better utilizing faculty expertise, and more fully serving the academic needs of the students.

Tests, worksheets, daily work, etc., are transported daily via teachers, special education buses, and vocational buses that routinely travel between these communities.

Some unanticipated benefits that have strengthened the bonds of the school districts toward the project:

- A spirit of cooperation has been fostered among the districts involved
- A means for communication between teachers of like disciplines has been provided
- Students have gained experience with the equipment used in the system
- School events have been programmed into the cable system

The use of technology, especially involving interactive two-way cable television, will be the salvation of small rural districts in this country. The success that this consortium has enjoyed has prompted additional considerations for use in the future; the consortium is currently planning to offer courses provided by a community college. These

would be college credit courses and open to both high school students and members of the community.

The interactive cable television system's future is only limited by creativity and a willingness to provide education in a non-traditional manner, the like of which is the wave of the future for rural education.

Two-Way Microwave Transmission Consolidates, Improves Education

By Robert N. Nelson

THE SIGN ABOVE the classroom door identifies it as the audiovisual room, but it is actually a small, effective television studio that connects three small schools in rural Iowa in an educational delivery system.

Caught up in declining enrollments, tightening budgets, and rising costs, local administrators began to investigate cooperative programming as a way to provide students an opportunity for a quality education and to offer districts a viable alternative to consolidation.

To meet these goals it was necessary to: (1) expand course offerings in math, science, and foreign language; (2) provide students a balanced curriculum from which to choose; (3) offer an uninterrupted sequence of classes; (4) assign teachers to areas of major expertise only; and (5) operate cost effectively.

Because transporting students and/or exchanging teachers to meet these goals was not feasible, administrators focused their attention on the possible use of technology. The final product is an interactive two-way instructional television system (TWIT), that joins studio/classrooms in three schools into one class.

Equipment, Costs, and Operation

The cooperating districts received a $250,000 federal grant to fund the purchase of the audio and video equipment that enables each school to transmit and receive microwave signals from a specially equipped classroom. Each participating school has a tower and microwave antenna dish that catches the signal and relays it to transceivers and associated hardware.

This is combined with in-class processing equipment including one portable color camera equipped with a macro zoom lens, three modified tele-

Robert N. Nelson is counselor and administrator at Morning Sun (Iowa) Community School.

vision monitors, two wall-mounted external speakers, two unidirectional microphones, and a custom-designed audio/video switching unit.

The entire system becomes operational with the turn of a key and is totally controlled by students and teachers in the classroom. Proper setting of the switching unit ensures that the image from the originating classroom appears full screen on two of the three monitors in the satellite rooms. The return signal carries the picture of both outlying classes to the teacher where they appear on a single monitor via split screen. (The class can originate in any of the three schools.)

TWIT has been a full time "employee" since it became operational in October 1980. The system is turned on at the beginning of the school day and runs continuously through seven full-length classes taught on a daily basis.

The instructor is in direct video contact with every student, and with proper camera placement in each classroom it is possible to simulate eye contact between student and teacher, thus creating a "normal" classroom situation. Audio contact between classrooms allows students to hear not only the instructor, but also questions and responses of fellow students without pushing buttons, making telephone calls, or switching the control unit.

If for some reason the audio or video portion of any classroom is not desired, either or both can be eliminated in a matter of seconds by proper switching. The system is effective, very easy to operate, and easily incorporates common teaching aids, including films and tapes.

Curriculum Selection

In March, after preregistration in each participating school, school principals meet to discuss what classes should be offered to ensure students a quality education, and what classes should be combined to be cost effective.

Advanced mathematics, advanced science, and two sequential offerings of a foreign language are givens in planning the schedule. The other three offerings come from the top of the priority list established by the principals.

Previous offerings have included: creative writing; vocational agriculture; psychology; sociology; shorthand; advanced speech; elementary, third year, and fourth year foreign language; and anatomy/physiology. Current offerings serve approximately 130 students, or roughly 30 percent of the secondary population in the three schools.

The commitment to interactive television is bold and innovative. Those who become involved are required to create, refine, and adjust their teaching techniques to complement the system and the students it serves.

Once course offerings are determined, the best instructor available is placed in charge of each class. Criteria used in the teacher selection process include evaluated expertise, organizational skills, personality, ability to project, demonstrated level of self-confidence,

ability to perform, and willingness to accept the challenge of interactive television.

Teacher Enthusiasm

Many factors have contributed to the success of TWIT; however, the greatest single factor has been the enthusiasm and continued support of the participating teachers. Seldom do those who have had an opportunity to use the system on a daily basis voluntarily relinquish their responsibility. They seem to develop a sense of pride and accomplishment in their association with interactive television.

The commitment to interactive television is bold and innovative. Those who become involved are required to create, refine, and adjust their teaching techniques to complement the system and the students it serves.

Teachers have benefited from observing one another's classes, then meeting to exchange ideas and provide constructive criticism. Some teachers may videotape their class sessions and review the tape to identify strengths and weaknesses.

Team teaching has been successfully incorporated into the system, also. The result is improved instruction that benefits not only televised classes but also every student with whom these teachers come into contact each day, so the quality of education in all of the schools has improved.

Student Reactions

Criteria for enrollment in TWIT offerings are no different than for traditional classes; some classes are restricted to specific grade levels, while others require successful completion of prerequisites.

As a general rule the TWIT classes appeal to the more highly motivated and conscientious students, which has allowed schools to operate with limited classroom supervision and has allowed staff members to be assigned to more meaningful duties.

Student reaction is also positive. Students eagerly accepted the challenge of television, have not been hesitant to enroll in televised classes, and have performed at a high level once enrolled.

The television concept is gaining acceptance in the educational community, and well it should. The possibilities for constructive use of such systems is almost boundless.

The results of a survey completed by students involved with TWIT gives a general picture of their feelings toward the system:

- Ninety-seven percent indicated they experienced no more problems in the televised class than they did in traditional classes
- Sixty-seven percent believed they accepted more responsibility for their behavior and learning when enrolled in a TWIT class
- Ninety-seven percent indicated they would not hesitate to enroll in another televised offering
- Ninety-four percent believed their level of achievement in televised

classes was as high as or higher than that of the traditional classroom.

Teachers and administrators concur that these results present a generally accurate accounting of the system, and when comparisons were made of daily lesson scores, test scores, quarter and semester grades, and levels of class participation for both televised sections and other sections taught by the same teacher, no significant differences existed.

Operation—A Key To Success

An interactive television system can meet its full potential only if the school districts involved cooperate. School calendars must be identical to ensure that classes flow smoothly, as must school starting times and length of class periods. Televised offerings must be agreed to on a basis of overall value as opposed to selfish interests, and financial arrangements, if necessary, must be clearly stated, understood, and agreed to by all participants.

In each of these situations administrators must be willing to compromise, but members of the faculty and student body will also need to demonstrate cooperation and the ability to compromise so the program will benefit.

Vital Inservice Program

A thorough and ongoing inservice program is also vital to the success of an interactive television system. The entire staff and student body must be aware of the need for and purpose of cooperative programming, and must become familiar with the equipment and grow accustomed to its presence in the classroom.

The importance of equipment placement must also be demonstrated. The goal is to simulate a "normal" classroom, so proper placement of monitors, camera, and microphones is vital. Both students and teachers must be prepared to troubleshoot minor problems; TWIT can and does malfunction on occasion because of human error and/or mechanical problems.

Because teachers and students need to work together to explore the most effective techniques of instruction and response, use of various teaching aids should be demonstrated at inservice sessions. Members of the staff who are not teaching through the system need to be made a part of it and instructed on how they too can use interactive television to benefit themselves and their students.

Students eagerly accepted the challenge of television, have not been hesitant to enroll in televised classes, and have performed at a high level once enrolled.

Numerous Benefits

An interactive television system adapts to many situations:

- It is a cost effective method of improving the quality of education at the local level.
- Resources of participating districts can be pooled to improve utilization of finances and facilities.
- Teachers, freed from overburdening, can concentrate on specialized areas.
- Student responsibility and independence grows.
- Barriers between districts are broken, allowing increased cooperation between schools.

Educational Future

The television concept is gaining acceptance in the educational community, and well it should. The possibilities for constructive use of such systems is almost boundless. It is now possible to include computer inter-links and facsimile transmissions. Systems can be constructed to utilize multi-channel operation, and satellite receiving packages are available. Adult education and teleconference opportunities are unlimited, and local college involvement is common in some areas.

In summary, interactive television is playing an increasingly important role in the field of education. It represents the use of technology to respond to some of the problems facing educational leaders today. Although not designed for use by every student or district, those who do use it will undoubtedly find television to be a valuable educational delivery system that works for high school students.

What Can Principals Do To Improve Competency, Proficiency Testing?

David Nelson
Reuben Thompson
Lloyd Dickens

The role of principals in effective schools is already well documented, but here the writers carefully review the principal's role in instructional accountability, management systems, communications, and remedial programs—among several others.

Until quite recently, few educators realized the full impact of minimum competency and proficiency testing. Today dramatic changes in instructional programs are being forced upon many local school districts.

The Ideal vs. the Real

Ideally, criterion-based testing of basic skills offers a practical and useful technique for measuring student performance on locally developed objectives. Its purpose is to provide local documentation for assessing individual student progress and for evaluating curricular programs without relying on the competition of norm-referenced or standardized tests.

In reality, however, minimum competency testing in many states pro-

David Nelson is assistant superintendent; Reuben Thompson is principal; and Lloyd Dickens is superintendent; all with the Sheldon Independent School District, Houston, Tex.

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vides a common means to compare, or to criticize, school performance on a statewide basis. As a result, many educational observers are involved in a new educational pastime—"The Rating Game."

The rules are simple: Compare the test scores from individual schools or districts based upon common objectives as proof positive that one school or district is "better" than another. Such an activity has obvious implications for school administrators.

From its inception, competency-based testing was to provide local school districts with the control and the responsibility over their own instructional programs. The process of establishing well-defined goals for both teachers and students—and measuring progress toward such goals—is an educationally sound accomplishment.

Realistically, however, minimum competency tests measure only selected objectives, and local needs are seldom considered if the tests are developed by the state. Thus, the obvious advantages of proficiency testing have not been realized, and many school districts are under pressure to improve test performance—right now.

When faced with the challenge (or threat) of improving student proficiency in basic skills and adapting the local curriculum appropriately, most administrators rely upon principals to implement needed change. Educational administration has long recognized the fact that principals possess the fundamental leadership role. When a district is confronted with a new educational challenge, such as improving student competency on a single test instrument, adoption of defined practices by a principal is likely to yield positive improvement on a long-term basis.

Instructional Accountability

A recent development in curriculum theory has been the emergence of the concept "instructional accountability," which holds that those assigned the responsibility of teaching should be accountable for certain learning objectives and basic skills. Instructional accountability is both far-reaching and complex. In addition, it is a very sensitive issue, fraught with confusion, interpersonal conflict, and the possibility of confrontation between special interest groups.

In order to implement a systematic, logical, and pragmatic system at the building level, the principal should carefully consider the following elements of instructional accountability:

- What are the goals for which the individual school is responsible?
- What are the measures of minimum competency?
- Who is responsible for implementing instructional objectives?
- What are the levels of competency within the district? Within the individual school?
- What kind of data should be collected in such an analysis?
- How should the results be used in adjusting the school's instructional program?

In theory, only persons may be held accountable for educational out-

comes, not school systems. Therefore, individuals within the school system are those responsible for initiating the desired changes in student learning. Put simply, this means that the personnel within the educational system, from the board of education to the classroom teacher, *must* be assigned a specific role in the educational process.

In the final analysis, the logical individual to effectively orchestrate the complex interactions of accountability is the principal.

Administrative Decision Making

All school principals should be knowledgeable about the decision-making process and should be able to utilize at least one successful problem-solving technique. Such a process is based upon open communication between teachers and principals as well as a defined procedure for controlled faculty participation. As such, teachers would then be able to make appropriate input and suggestions to any course of action.

This type of "professional democracy" would effectively motivate the faculty and be a powerful stimulus to improved student performance. In terms of the decision-making process itself, the following steps are often practiced:

- Define and present the problem to the teacher(s) involved.
- Collect all relevant information about student performance and curriculum protocol.
- Disseminate the information with opportunities for analysis and commentary from the central office staff and other appropriate persons.
- List all possible solutions to the issue.
- Analyze the relative strengths and weaknesses, (including cost) of each of the suggestions.
- Identify potential solutions to the problems.
- Develop alternative solutions.
- Select, by consensus, the most appropriate suggestions.
- Implement the various courses of action into the existing program with continued input from the teachers.
- Designate the responsibility and clearly define the procedures for evaluation.

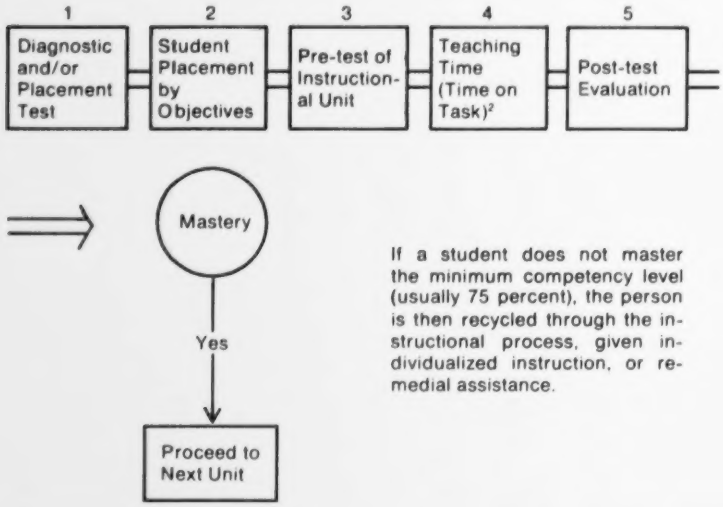
Management Systems

The term "systems approach" is essentially a comprehensive problem-solving approach to decision making. In attempting to improve test scores, for example, a principal would not merely look at the math or reading instruction received; the competent administrator would examine *all* of the factors that influence reading or math ability.

In short, the principal must identify the reading or math "system" and examine it from the perspective of systems theory. What advantages does such an approach offer? The following synthesis by Dunathon[1] suggests those most often cited:

1. Arni T. Dunathon, "The Systems Approach: For Education a Mixed Fit," in *Challenge and Choice In Contemporary Education*, edited by Christopher J. Lucas (New York: Macmillan Co., 1976), p. 145.

Figure 1


1
Diagnostic and/or Placement Test
2
Student Placement by Objectives
3
Pre-test of Instruction-al Unit
4
Teaching Time (Time on Task)²
5
Post-test Evaluation
Mastery
Yes
Proceed to Next Unit
If a student does not master the minimum competency level (usually 75 percent), the person is then recycled through the instructional process, given individualized instruction, or remedial assistance.

2. A well-known principle of learning states that the longer a student spends on a given task the greater the potential for mastery.

1. The specification of goals and objectives focuses effort and clarifies for all parties involved what the process is intended to accomplish. Objectives not included in the specifications cannot be expected to be attained. For education this means a purposefulness of effort at all levels and a particular gain in the perceived relevance of teaching by faculty members and learning by students.
2. The provision for multiple strategies provides flexibility as well as fail-safe backup. The system can continue to function when some routes are blocked. In education this allows for individual differences not only among learners but among other participants in the system.
3. The commitment to data-based decisions allows the system to function rationally in accordance with facts and outside the constraints of opinion, intuition, and emotion. It promises to make reality of accountability and allow education to demonstrate with evidence its accomplishments.
4. The provision for evaluation and feedback consciousness allows the system to be programed for both designer oversights and changing objectives. Responsiveness to change could be an educational

strength or advantage under a systems approach.

To develop a comprehensive instructional strategy for students, the principal should carefully implement a local management system. Such a procedure underscores the need for all teachers to organize their unit planning and daily lessons with basic skills and expected outcomes clearly defined. Most principals have long acknowledged that systematic planning and excellent teaching are the only ways to live up to the cardinal principle of American education, which promises to provide a comprehensive education for all students. Figure 1 illustrates a model of a typical management system and may be applied to any learning competency.

Effective Communication

It would be almost impossible to find any aspect of the principal's job that does not involve effective communication. Despite the tremendous advances in communication and information technology, communication between principals and teachers still leaves much to be desired. Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly, three specialists in organizational behavior, conclude: "Communication between people does not depend on technology but rather on the forces in people and their surroundings. It is a process that occurs 'within' people."[3]

Effective administrative communication is the result of a mutual understanding between the principal and the teacher. Thus, communication becomes the transmission of information and understanding through the use of common symbols (verbal and nonverbal). The three most common directions of administrative communication with teachers are:

1. *Downward Communication*—from principal to teachers. The most common examples of downward communication include: teaching instructions, administrative memos, policy statements, official procedures, and central office directives. In many schools downward communication is both inadequate and inaccurate. The absence of teaching-related information may often create unnecessary confusion among the faculty; it also prohibits effective sharing of responsibility—a vital component of accountability.
2. *Upward Communication*—from teachers to principal. A successful school program requires upward communication as much as it needs downward communication. Upward communication logically proceeds from a grade-level chairperson or department chairperson to principal. This form of communication is frequently misused as a reinforcement to effective principal-faculty planning.
3. *Horizontal Communication*—from teacher to teacher or principal to principal. The provision for the natural flow of horizontal communication is often overlooked in

3. James L. Gibson, John M. Ivancevich, and James H. Donnelly, Jr., *Organizations: Behavior, Structure, and Process* (Dallas, Tex.: Business Publications, Inc.), p. 318.

the formal design of most school programs. For example, when the chairman of the English department communicates with the chairman of the social studies department, the flow of communication is horizontal. Horizontal communication is essential for the coordination and integration of diverse educational units.

Here are some ways that a principal may improve all forms of communication:

- Follow up oral statements.
- Repeat oral messages in different ways.
- Control, but encourage, the flow of information—downward, upward, horizontal.
- Reduce the communication gap between teacher and central office by finding a common ground of experience and appropriate channels.
- Develop a climate of trust and mutual respect.
- Time communications carefully and avoid emotional statements.
- Simplify the message to its most basic terms.
- Respond to all inquiries as soon as possible (within the day if it can be managed).
- Become an effective listener by avoiding value judgments, listening to the full story, recognizing feelings, and restating the other person's position.

Professional Growth

If teachers are to be recognized as competent and professional, they must assume responsibility in keeping themselves current in their areas of expertise. Secondary teachers should be encouraged to keep up with both the latest content knowledge and the most efficient teaching strategies in their field. Elementary teachers should be required[4] to supplement their general educational backgrounds with additional course work in the teaching of reading, mathematics, and composition.

All principals would do well to give greater attention to the professional growth of individual faculty members. The principal, with the support of the central office administration, is the important person in creating an effective program of professional growth. Further, local inservice sessions provide a perfect opportunity to seek outside assistance to offer recommended solutions for local problems.

Individualized Instruction

G. R. Musgrave describes the attitude that educators should hold toward the concept of individualized instruction. "Complete individualization is a goal for educators as much as democracy is a goal for Americans or Christianity is a goal for Christians. Everyone in education should strive to reach the goal, knowing that as the school situation is focusing on

4. Many states are now considering the adoption of a competency examination for teachers in the areas of general education as well as subject area specialization. Successful completion of such an examination would be prerequisite to obtaining a probationary or permanent certificate.

the individual student in the teaching-learning process, another step is being made toward the ultimate goal."[5]

In describing the process of individualized instruction, many writers have delineated its features and characteristics. For purposes of this analysis, however, five broad components of individualization will be reviewed:

- *Intraclass grouping*—task-oriented arrangements based upon student interests, abilities, and needs.
- *Multimedia teaching*—videotaped lessons, learning packets, programed modules, computer-assisted lessons, and countless other materials and devices designed to individualize learning for students.
- *Self-direction in learning*—making options and choices available to students on a self-selected basis.
- *Differentiated assignments*—an array of student exercises based upon a defined skills continuum arranged in a sequential framework.
- *Tutorial Practices*—diagnostic and corrective help from a teacher aide, parent volunteer, intern, student teacher, remedial specialist, peer, older student, or from any other person able to offer assistance.

Teacher-Made Tests

Tests constructed by teachers are probably the most important method of evaluating the mastery of classroom objectives. Such instruments provide a direct measure of major learning outcomes and also provide indirect evidence about other instructional variables.

The chief advantage of a teacher-made test is that it is content specific, i.e., it usually covers exactly what has been taught in the classroom. Of course, the teacher-made test should incorporate the same objectives as those designated within the criterion-referenced tests. Teacher-made tests include the precise content of the lessons and may even include the teacher's particular style and vocabulary.

Unfortunately, the major drawback of teacher-produced tests is that they are often poorly constructed. The design of a good teacher-made test requires not only a sound understanding of the content, but also a clear concept of intended outcomes. A list of the criteria for a successful teacher-made test is provided to help guide school administrators toward appropriate test instruments for classroom use:[6]

- Plan for a test before attempting to teach the material.
- Make a careful plan for the test so that the teacher and the students know what is expected.
- Analyze the importance of each objective and assign a percent to each one; the test should parallel these relative weights.

5. G. R. Musgrave, *Individualized Instruction: Teaching Strategies Focusing on the Learner* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1975), p. X.

6. Betty Coody and David Nelson, *Teaching Language Arts Through Children's Literature* (Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1981), pp. 175-176.

- Have the objectives of the unit clearly in mind as test questions are written.
- Make up the individual questions aiming toward clarity, objectivity, and ease of grading.
- Include a representative sample of the subject matter in test items.
- Develop test items at the appropriate level of difficulty for the students.
- Write the test while the unit is being taught.
- Use a variety of question types—long answer (essay), short answer, and objective-based—the one that best measures the objectives.
- Use the test results as a means of evaluating teaching as well as assigning a grade.

Positive Attitude

The positive attitude and morale of a faculty is highly related to the personality and leadership style of the principal. If the principal has an optimistic attitude toward education and has a basic understanding about what to expect in the position, he or she is apt to present a dynamic and forceful approach in handling challenges that arise. In other words, positive interpersonal relationships are likely to become contagious and student achievement may represent the "Pygmalion effect."

According to the eminent psychologist Abraham Maslow, action springs from a person's deepest needs and desires. For this reason any principal who persuades or motivates teachers is probably guided by three basic principles:

First, teachers must *want something.* They must want money, promotion, recognition, something, and they must desire it strongly enough to be willing to do something about it.

Second, teachers must *have a way of getting it.* There is little reason to want something when no practical or visible way of achieving it seems to exist. Only when teachers see a path, a way of acting and behaving that will move them toward their objective, will they be motivated toward it.

Third, teachers *must believe that their efforts, if successful, will be rewarded.* Many teachers have goals and see ways of achieving them, but lack the faith that their efforts will be fairly rewarded. When teachers perform on a high level, in all probability they will expect a high level of performance from their students.

Teacher Recruitment

A major factor in determining the success of any educational program or curriculum is the concept of "best fit." If the school's enrollment changes or a teacher resigns, this condition gives the principal an excellent opportunity to dramatically strengthen the teaching staff in an area of greatest need.

Upon determination of such needs, principals should actively recruit teachers who have a wide background in language, reading, and/or mathematics. Teacher candidates should have more than the basic courses required to graduate in a degree program; they should demonstrate

strength in all forms of language skills.

In an interview, the principal would do well to stress the importance of correlating and integrating the basic skills into all content areas. For example, specific questions might be asked of the applicant as to the procedures a teacher might employ to incorporate reading into other subjects.

Of course, the principal will continue to emphasize the importance of teaching district learning objectives in an exciting learning environment.

Testing Procedures

If the local district is assuming the responsibility for developing, administering, and interpreting proficiency testing, much of this section may be superfluous. If, however, the state or other agencies retain primary control of student competency testing, these considerations will be of assistance to the principal in the anticipation of improved test results.

The teaching staff should, of course, be familiar with the test objectives and work toward their mastery all year. A single effort of "test coaching" is not sufficient to improve the overall results of a test.

The specific test objectives should be introduced, taught, mastered, and reviewed over the span of several grade levels. It is a naive assumption that once a basic skill is learned it is mastered. Even more reinforcement and administrative strength should be given to the fact that although a basic skill is taught in one subject area, such skills are truly mastered when applied to the content of different learning situations.

In short, *all* teachers should teach the basic skills as found on minimum competency tests—not just an individual teacher in one particular course or grade level.

As the time draws near to administer the test, the following test-taking procedures are suggested by successful principals:

- Develop an inservice program that will foster a positive climate and greater understanding of the measurement of minimum competencies. There should be a complete inservice training for the test coordinators and building administrators.
- Encourage the faculty to develop and implement good measurement practices into the regular instructional process.
- Utilize the same type of response instruments in the teacher's regular testing program as those found on the minimum competency test.
- Keep the parents fully informed about state-mandated testing programs. Announce to the parents at least two weeks in advance when the tests are to be administered and offer suggestions about review sessions with their children. This can be accomplished through workshop sessions or the PTA.
- Organize an effective mechanism that will maximize the test results when they are received. Provide sessions for parents about the local results and direct the teachers to modify the existing instructional program.

- Use test results to identify the student problems and curricular deficiencies.
- Provide the proper interpretative information about individual students in a report that parents can easily understand.

Remedial Programs

In recent years a greater awareness of the needs of youngsters with unique learning requirements has emerged. Many of them are placed in programs generically termed "remedial," "mainstream," and "special education." Children with special needs are to be afforded the same educational rights as other students. As a result, learning disabled students are entitled to instruction according to their needs, whether in special or regular classes (or both), and schools are changing to accommodate the needs of diverse learners.[7]

It is the consensus of professional educators that there are really no content differences between a curriculum for the remedial and nonremedial student. The difference between educational programs for such students is essentially a matter of applying one or more of the following instructional strategies: modifying the way in which content is presented, modifying the way in which the student is asked to respond to the content, and modifying the position where the child may fall within the content sequence.

A sound remedial program is based upon a defined content sequence or continuum. When a principal advocates the following practices, remedial instruction is more likely to be successful:

- Develop short-term instructional goals to meet the special needs of remedial learners.
- Prepare realistic and specific objectives that comply with the program requirements of the remedial student.
- Tell the student exactly what is expected to complete a particular learning objective.
- Teach content information in smaller, meaningful units to the remedial student.
- Provide real-life opportunities for the student with special abilities and provide recognition for accomplishments.
- Promote the wide use of different and special types of learning resources.
- Encourage the remedial student to compete with self rather than with peers.
- Create an organized, systematic instructional plan that includes an appropriate evaluation procedure.
- Remain patient and understanding in dealing with the behavioral aspects of remedial students.

The principal should consider four steps as any remedial program is developed.

First, the administration should *plan* for remedial programs by fully utilizing the results of the minimum competency, achievement, and ability tests.

7. David Nelson and Les Sternberg, "Reading Instruction for the Diverse Learners," *Reading Horizons*, Summer 1980, pp. 241-243.

Second, organize remedial programs by consulting professional personnel, reinforcing the regular curriculum, developing a remedial laboratory, and creating a workable program schedule.

Third, many states financially *support* remedial services. The principal should be aware of all state funding sources for remedial education and should frequently consult with central office specialists.

Fourth, the principal should carefully *monitor* the remedial process. Remedial programs are only significant learning tools when adequate local support is rendered. The principal is the real director of any successful remedial effort.

Competency based on proficiency testing is an issue that is dramatically affecting many of the nation's school districts. The question of whether or not it is realistic to expect all students to attain a specified level of achievement in reading, mathematics, or composition is a moot point; a state legislature may enact legislation mandating compliance. Notwithstanding all of the expensive federal, state, and local programs, the principal is the person most responsible for implementing effective teaching and its logical counterpart—successful test scores. With systematic planning and evaluation, positive faculty support, and realistic student expectancies, the principal holds the key to improved test scores.

The Small School: How It Can Be Improved

R. Paul Brimm
Donald L. Hanson

THE SIZE OF a school is not necessarily the determining factor for quality. There are good large schools and good small schools.

Conversely, the quality of the educational program is usually determined by how well a school capitalizes on its strengths and on how well it overcomes its weaknesses.

The large school has an inherent opportunity to offer a broad program of studies, but unless it seizes on the opportunity to do so, this type of program will never develop. At the same time, the large enrollment lends itself to a very impersonal atmosphere. This possibility must be overcome through a carefully planned program or the effectiveness of the broad program will be lost.

The small school also has potential strengths and weaknesses, but the strengths will not be realized and the weaknesses will not be overcome unless programs are planned to analyze each, and then steps taken to improve the quality of student experiences in the school.

One of the most commonly cited strengths of the small school is small class size. However, it is not unusual to visit a class of six or eight students and find the teacher standing at a lectern in front of the class using techniques that are recognized as acceptable in the large-group instruction mode for an auditorium-type setting.

Further, it should be recognized that a small enrollment can easily limit the breadth and depth of educational offerings. Unless the school departs from some of the conventional patterns of instruction, the value of small class size may be lost. Among the many possibilities that should be explored are such ideas as mini-courses, supervised correspondence courses, independent study, seminars, shared personnel, and projects.

The task of the school—large or small—in changing its conventional practices is not an easy one. Some devices may be relatively easy to institute and develop through an administrative structure, but really important and effective changes require intensive study on the part of the faculty and administration, coupled with a carefully planned in-service program. As an illustration, provision for pupils to take correspondence courses in a supervised situation can easily be arranged by

R. Paul Brimm and Donald L. Hanson are professors of educational administration at the University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls.

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publicizing the opportunity, setting aside a period in the schedule which is conflict free, and assigning a teacher to supervise the program.

These administrative structures, of course, do not necessarily ensure a successful program. The teacher assigned to such a program must be interested and capable, and above all, willing to accept the responsibility of developing ways to help make the correspondence courses more interesting. The nature of teacher effort and attitude is a major determiner of program character and quality, including attitude toward the small school itself.

If, as some have suggested, the continued existence of small schools is a major educational problem, then we must address the problem directly. A logical first step in searching for a solution would be an examination of the strengths and weaknesses of the small school. It must be emphasized that this is but a first step. It would be a tragic waste of time and effort to identify these elements and then do nothing about them.

Strengths

- Freedom from the administrative pettiness and red tape which characterizes the large school is indeed a highly desirable element of the small school.
- There is a potential flexibility in the administrative structure of the small school, as fewer set rules are necessary and personnel and problems can be solved on a more individual basis.
- The nature of a small school lends itself to a closely knit and well-coordinated situation in an informal atmosphere.
- More complete records can be kept on each individual, and the numbers involved make it possible to utilize these records in a constructive manner.
- Improved ideas can be more easily implemented because of a less complex administrative structure and the smaller number of persons to be coordinated in a change.
- The personal relationship between the teacher and the administrator lends itself to greater freedom in instituting improved practices.
- The individual teacher can have more input and more influence on the total school program than is possible in a large system.
- The teachers, pupils, and administrators have a much closer relationship with members of the board of education, and relationships can be developed in a climate of understanding.
- The professional staff has an opportunity to establish a real identification with the community by developing the respect of the people. In such a climate it is possible to exert a broader influence on the total educational experiences provided by the community.

- The school building is often the central meeting place for the community, and as such provides excellent contact between the public and the school.
- A greater opportunity is present for more students to participate in the total range of school activities.
- A higher percentage of the patrons of the school can be involved in the activities of the school. Parent involvement in the school program leads to better community support.
- Teachers have an opportunity to know the parents better and can cooperate more closely on student problems.
- Discipline is not the problem that is usually the case in large schools. This means that more of the teachers' efforts can go toward constructive instruction with minimal effort wasted on control.
- Smaller classes allow for more individualized instruction.
- Teachers have a better opportunity to be close to the students and to know them better.
- Innovative practices such as team teaching, flexible schedules, and multigrade grouping can be more easily implemented because the numbers involved are smaller, making planning much less complex.
- Closer relations among teachers can provide a cooperative climate facilitating planning of new programs and articulating learning experiences, both on a vertical and horizontal basis.

In general, the strengths of the small school are related to the relatively limited number of pupils, professionals, and patrons. When adequately recognized and appropriately utilized, these elements will transform the potential for an improved school program into reality.

Weaknesses

- Although the financial resources may be equated on a per-pupil basis, they are often not sufficient to provide for the same kinds of programs found in the larger schools.
- The small student body makes it difficult to provide a wide range of educational experiences. The breadth of the small school program must be achieved in different ways than are usually found in the large school.
- The homogeneous nature of the small school's ethnic and socioeconomic structures does not provide the pupils an opportunity to experience contacts with a wide range of cultures on a day-by-day basis. These experiences must be provided in a different manner.
- The small schools have a tendency to copy large school practices, and this often leads to an inferior program.

Capitalizing on Strengths

Condition	Strength	What To Do
Small Class Size	Provides a better opportunity for small group instruction.	Break away from the lecture – recitation mode of instruction and investigate a wide range of techniques to be used in small group and individual activities.
Small Enrollment	Scheduling can be done more easily as there are small numbers involved.	Investigate various types of flexible scheduling and design a system that will offer the best educational advantages to the particular school in question.
Fewer Teachers	Interpersonal relations among teachers can be exceptionally good.	Organize programs to insure a high degree of both vertical and horizontal articulation.
Favorable Pupil-teacher ratio	A high degree of pupil teacher interpersonal relations can be developed.	Organize a specific program so teachers are more than just impersonal dispensors of information from the classroom.
Small Community	Cohesiveness is relatively easy to build if a common cause is found to involve people.	Develop plans to get the community involved. Parents, pupils and teachers can paint rooms – parents will volunteer for teacher aides – advisory committees can improve the program and furnish resource materials and personnel.

(This is not intended to be a comprehensive list. These are but samples of the types of items that a total faculty study could generate.)

Compensating for Weaknesses

Condition	Weakness	What To Do
Small Enrollment	A wide range of course offerings cannot be provided.	A series of one-semester or mini-courses can be offered to provide a wider range of experiences. Supervised correspondence courses offer a real possibility as do multi-grade courses and combining courses such as Art III and Art IV.
Small Faculty	The wide range of experiences are limited as most teachers have competency in only one area.	Staff recruitment procedures can develop a versatile faculty if planned over a period of years. A survey of all teachers in the system (K-12) will uncover a wide range of expertise. Thus, careful staff utilization and use of resource persons in the community will help.
Limited Budget	Expensive equipment for small numbers of pupils is difficult to to justify.	Pools of equipment and materials to be shared among several schools hold much promise. Better use could be made of the Area Resource Centers now developing in many states.
Similar ethnic, cultural and socio-economic backgrounds.	Children do not have an opportunity to see and understand "how the other side lives."	Exchange programs with foreign countries as well as with urban areas could provide some interesting results. Perhaps courses in minority problems deserves more emphasis in the small school than in urban areas. Excursions do much to improve this situation.

(This is not intended to be a comprehensive list. This are but samples of the types of items that a total faculty study could generate.)

- The instructional program is usually oriented toward college preparation. This appears to have top priority although it usually serves a smaller number of pupils than the non-college program.
- The small number of students enrolled in advanced and specialized classes makes such offerings difficult to justify from an economic point of view.
- Rural youth are often disadvantaged in terms of occupational and educational aspirations. In order to compensate for this, the school's influence must reach into the community, including the larger community beyond the school district.
- Teachers are often isolated in their work. A fourth grade teacher in the elementary school has no one with whom to share professional ideas at this level, and the science teacher at the secondary school may be the only person in the community engaged in teaching this area of knowledge.
- A wide range of professional specialization cannot be achieved and as a result, teachers are often assigned to teach in subject areas in which preparation is inadequate.
- The fact that there are few multiple sections of grade levels or courses usually results in an excessive number of daily preparations for the teacher.
- The demand of the community for a broad range of interscholastic athletics results in a disproportionate percentage of teachers being involved in coaching. This often results in the practice of employing a coach and making a teaching assignment as a second priority. It also involves so high a percentage of the faculty in athletics that other aspects of the activity program will suffer.
- The attitude too often permeates the total school—administration, teachers, pupils, and patrons—that because the school is small it cannot be good. Unless this defeatist attitude is changed, the school will probably continue to offer inferior educational experiences.

Generally speaking, the disadvantages of the small school tend to cluster around a lack of flexibility. This is the result of a limited financial base, fewer teachers, and a smaller student body that cannot be broken down into sizable interest and needs groups.

Improving the Small School

One of the most commonly proposed solutions to overcoming the disadvantages of a school that result from its small size is reorganization into larger units. However, many schools are still small after reorganization, and many schools are in a position where they cannot or will not

agree to reorganization. Instead of hiding our heads in the sand and wishing we were larger, there are many steps that can be taken to improve the school within its existing structure.

Following is a list of suggestions that naturally evolves from a careful review of strengths and weaknesses of the small school. The suggestions are aimed at capitalizing on the strengths that are usually characteristic of the small school and at overcoming some of the weaknesses that usually go with a small community and a small school enrollment. These ideas are suggested in rather general terms and an implementation of any of them should be the result of indepth study.

- Build a positive attitude for the school through teachers, pupils, and parents. Convincing patrons in a school district that they have a good school is usually one result of their involvement in an improvement program. Pupils, teachers, and parents should all be given an opportunity to participate in a systematic program of school improvement.
- The small school must capitalize on its small classes to further individualize instruction. This will require a rather intense inservice program for all concerned—teachers, pupils, and parents. Most instructional programs are dominated by the lecture-recitation mode of instruction, while the techniques for small group and individual effort have not been fully developed by teachers and are misunderstood by most pupils and parents.
- The program of the school must be expanded to include the wide range of cultural, ethnic, educational, and vocational experiences that are found in the urban community. Planned instructional programs and excursions can compensate to a large degree for those elements missing in the rural community.
- The instructional resources of the total community should be surveyed and maximum use made of them. Elementary teachers have hobbies that can contribute to the secondary instructional programs. The secondary teacher can furnish subject matter expertise to enrich materials and experiences of the elementary school. Persons in the community and other segments of the school often have much to contribute if identified and properly used.
- Patron proximity to and interest in schools in a rural setting is a ready resource of volunteer services. The unique expertise of individuals can be used to enrich the curriculum content; support functions can be performed by volunteers, thus permitting teachers to devote more time and effort to the development and implementation of appropriate instructional strategies.
- In this age of adequate teacher supply, the school can be better

staffed with the versatility that is needed in the small school. This will require a long-range program in which existing misassignments are corrected and narrow specialists gradually eliminated. A systematic program of better staff utilization can do much to expand the program.

- The professional staff needs to be constantly studying ways to improve the program of studies and to create a climate that is receptive to new and better instructional methods. More one-semester courses need investigation; mini-courses hold real possibilities; supervised correspondence courses have real merit; and exchange of pupils, materials, and teachers between schools can do much to improve the program.
- Several small schools (perhaps an athletic league) can organize a program for mutual assistance for such things as inservice programs, school evaluation, and pools of instructional materials.
- It is also possible for a group of small schools to share teachers, particularly those who could assume responsibility for highly specialized classes. While students may at times be expected to travel, it is equally realistic to expect some teachers to travel from school to school.
- Investigation of educational technology can uncover many helpful ways to improve the program. Videotape, the telephone amplifier, films, recordings, models, learning packages, computer-assisted instruction, and programmed materials are but a few technological advances that could be explored.

Attacking the Problem

Many things can be done to improve the instructional program in small schools. However, it is imperative that a master plan for action be developed, a plan that will avoid the "scatter load" approach in which the school goes blindly in all directions. This master plan would identify priorities and fix responsibility for getting the job accomplished. Worksheets such as those which follow could be developed to analyze strengths and weaknesses of the school, and subsequent corrective measures taken to effect program improvements. With coordinated, concentrated, and creative effort small schools can be significantly improved.

4. Teachers: Supporting Better Learning

Teachers and principals are partners in the school improvement process. Emphasis on the mutual goals and expectations of teachers and principals is a feature of this section.

In discussing teacher motivation, Williams (p. 151) stresses the importance of having the same goals. An accountable way to reach mutual goals is emphasized in the supervision/evaluation process outlined by Embretson, Ferber, and Langager (p. 163). Arganbright (p. 157) challenges the principal to be a catalyst in creating and maintaining the belief that all students can learn; in committing both administration and faculty to high expectations for student achievement.

Stating that the key to inservice and to teacher evaluation is the principal, Halstead (p. 181) acknowledges difficulties of inservice for small school districts and offers suggestions for planning, implementation, and program. Emphasis is placed on the important point of getting started.

Reavis and Mehaffie (p. 187) believe that since the principal's job is not so much to create change as to create situations in which change can occur, it follows that professional growth of staff is a major responsibility of principals of small schools.

Supervision, evaluation processes, and evaluation instruments and criteria should be consistent with the philosophy of helping teachers and facilitating a healthy learning environment. Arganbright, Dunkleberger (p. 168), King (p. 175), and Embretson all frequently allude to expectations/criteria and knowing what these expectations/criteria are.

Brown's one minute system for working with inexperienced and/or marginal teachers (p. 191) places heavy emphasis on mutual goals. His adaptation of Blanchard's management system to a process of working with teachers has great possibilities for busy small school principals.

In brief, the thread running through this section is best described by Peters and Waterman: "Productivity through people; creating in all employees the awareness that their best efforts are essential and that they will share in the rewards of . . . success."*

*Thomas J. Peters and Robert H. Waterman, Jr., *Search for Excellence* (New York: Warner Books, 1984).

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Application of Research

Teacher Motivation and Satisfaction

Robert T. Williams

This article reports on some research about human motivation, and suggests some applications to teachers. The author assumes that teachers are not much different from people in other occupations with respect to motivation and job satisfaction, and that administrators can improve their effectiveness by understanding and applying the research findings.

ABRAHAM MASLOW THEORIZED that humans are motivated by five drives: physiological, security, social, esteem, and self-actualization.[1] The physiological drive is concerned with meeting the basic needs of food, clothing, and shelter. The drive for security is essentially materialistic, and refers to the individual's satisfaction that he can at least maintain the present standard of living. The other three drives speak to how the individual relates to other people, and how the individual feels about himself. More about these later.

The five levels form a hierarchy. The first level must be reasonably satisfied before one is concerned with the second level, and so on. Also, if one is seeking to advance through the higher levels and something comes along to threaten his security, then he will revert to protecting security. On the national level, this happens when war threatens. On the personal level, an example would be the teacher who abandons a proj-

Robert T. Williams is assistant professor and associate dean, School of Education, North Carolina State University at Raleigh.

1. Abraham Maslow, *Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper and Row, 1954).

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ect which has become controversial to the point where community feeling begins to threaten the teacher's job.

Recent college graduates who majored in teacher education and who must support themselves primarily are concerned with finding a job in order to meet their physiological needs. For those not obtaining a teaching position, this need can still be met through employment as a teacher aide, a job outside of the education field, unemployment compensation, etc. When recent graduates are asked during a job interview, "Why have you applied for this particular position?" some of them honestly reply, "I just need a teaching job anywhere, and you have an opening." At that moment, they are trying to satisfy their physiological needs.

For most of us, the first two levels are not a problem. We are employed, and we know what our salary, tenure, and benefits are. If we choose to stay in our present position for 20 to 30 years, we know what behavior is needed and expected.

Yet, we have mixed feelings about our security. We are satisfied that there is a place for us, but we are dissatisfied because we want more. In the material realm we gradually come to realize that there is not likely to be any major breakthrough to satisfy us. So we work for a 15 percent salary increase, or a 10-month salary, or better maternity benefits—whatever the political climate seems likely to yield. We can look back over 10 years and see some improvement nearly every year, and this is satisfying.

Our concern turns to fairness, and when we realize that at the state level competing groups have made about the same gains, we are satisfied. At the local level, if administrators and central office staff are perceived to have improved themselves quite a bit more than teachers, and the teachers know it or believe it, then we can expect teachers to be dissatisfied. At the school level, teachers compare teaching load and extra-class assignments for an assurance of fairness.

Returning to Maslow's third level, the social needs consider one's relationships with his peers and community. The teacher new to a school will seek acceptance within the school from the principal, the teachers in adjacent classrooms, and gradually from other teachers throughout the school. Concurrently the new teacher seeks acceptance from groups of students and from ever-widening groups of adults in the community. To a lesser extent, the returning teacher re-establishes his acceptance by these groups each year. Acceptance is rather quickly obtained by most teachers, and social relationships deepen to the point where one develops close friendships with a few members of each group.

Once security and social needs are met, relationships slide into the esteem level, where a teacher seeks both self-esteem and the respect and praise of others. Now the teacher is recognized by others for his compe-

tence and is expected to contribute to the solution of problems facing the staff, and in turn can expect the group to contribute to the solution of his problems. This level is characterized by one's feelings of satisfaction about himself and his place in the organization, rather than by his concern for satisfaction of physical needs.

Maslow's fifth-level of self-actualization is characterized by inner feelings of achievement and personal success. A teacher at this level would also be recognized as having influence in the groups with which he has affiliated, and shares in the control and authority over others (authority based on competence, not position) because his opinion is respected. This person would consistently be performing at a high level, and would be recognized as such by others. We would expect such a teacher to feel great satisfaction in his work.

Have Teachers' Needs Been Met?

Let us assume that most teachers have moved beyond the first two levels of the hierarchy, and are meeting satisfactorily their needs at the social level. What is being done to help them move on to levels four and five? Without appropriate motivation, veteran teachers easily can get into a rut. A new set of textbooks, the introduction of interest centers, or a slight decrease in the pupil-teacher ratio are just three of many surface changes made from year to year, but how many of these really affect a teacher's motivation and job satisfaction?

Sergiovanni and Carver raised some important questions regarding the ways in which administrators and leaders of teacher organizations view teachers:

1. Are we confusing satisfaction factors which contribute to fulfilling basic animal needs with those which contribute to fulfilling basic human growth needs?
2. Are we overestimating the importance of extrinsic factors in dealing with teachers?
3. Are we underestimating the importance of intrinsic factors?
4. Have we confused the absence of job dissatisfaction in teachers with the presence of job satisfaction?
5. Are we confusing the symptoms of unrest among teachers with causes of unrest?[2]

2 Thomas J. Sergiovanni and Fred D. Carver, *The New School Executive: A Theory of Administration* (New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., 1973), p. 69.

Sergiovanni and Carver contend that the answer to each of these questions is yes, and they suggest that the foremost challenge for school executives is to facilitate the emergence of basic needs in the human sense.[3] They are clear in asserting that the elimination of factors that cause job dissatisfaction among teachers is something quite different from purposeful action designed to increase job satisfaction.

Implications for Administrators

Administrators can only accomplish their motivational system and instructional goals with the help and support of teachers. The system is likely to work more effectively when administrators and teachers are in agreement on goals. Disruption of the system is more likely to happen when teachers and administrators have conflicting goals.

Even in times of agreement on goals, the degree of achievement (and sometimes the speed of achievement) can be affected by the motivation which teachers bring to the classroom day after day. Principals are in a unique position to deal with teachers in a large group, in small groups, and individually. By being sensitive to each teacher's feelings with respect to Maslow's hierarchy, the skillful principal can match opportunities and interactions to meet the teacher's higher level needs.

Sergiovanni's research in New York and Illinois with a modification of Maslow's scale led him to conclude that teachers were generally well satisfied with the two lower order needs, but appreciably less fulfilled with the three higher order needs.[4]

To the extent that this is true in schools today, administrators have little to gain through additional appeals to motivate teachers at the lower levels of the hierarchy. The challenge is at the esteem and self-actualization levels, where teachers can improve their performance through developing greater competence and confidence, thereby earning the esteem of themselves and others.

Whereas such activities as parent-teacher conferences, working with student teachers, membership on district-wide committees, bus duty, and curriculum development are perceived by some teachers as a work overload, they are perceived by others as an opportunity for further self-development. Anyone developing a strategy for motivating a group of teachers and for winning their support must be cognizant of individual differences. Even within an elementary school faculty of 18 teachers, there may be one or more who are looking for their satisfaction primarily at the security level,

3. *Ibid.*, p. 57.

4. *Ibid.*, p 62.

and one or more who are at the self-actualization level. In such a case, one particular motivational appeal cannot be expected to influence all members of the group. For instance, a plan to go into team teaching will not motivate those who lack confidence in their own competence if they perceive such a situation as an exposure of their weakness to peers; whereas a plan for differentiated staffing might be acceptable to those same teachers if they perceive it as an opportunity to capitalize on their strengths. Likewise, the chairmanship of an important faculty committee is a risky assignment for the teacher who doesn't feel accepted by his co-workers.

Principals have many opportunities to initiate and support activities which will satisfy teachers at the higher levels of the hierarchy. In contrast, they have few opportunities to effect change in the teacher salary schedule, sick leave policy, and other items at the security level.

Implications for Teacher Organizations

It would seem that leaders of teacher organizations would be less able to affect teacher motivation and satisfaction than would administrators. The full-time staff members of the organization are not able to spend sufficient time with the majority of the members to get to know them individually. Also, the incentives at the esteem and self-actualization levels available for the staff members to offer teachers appear to be quite limited. Elected and appointed members of such organizations (most of whom are at the local level) are usually employed full-time in other positions, and serve the organizations as an overload. They also suffer the restrictions of time and lack of incentives which are needed to motivate individuals at the higher levels.

To the extent that this is true, then the organization's leaders must concentrate the use of its resources at those motivational levels where they can expect the greatest support and results.

It may evolve that teacher organizations can more effectively motivate teachers at the first two levels and that administrators can more effectively motivate teachers at the last two levels, with both groups overlapping at level three. A recognition of this by all parties could be helpful in clarifying roles and loyalties.

Conclusion

An application of Maslow's hierarchy of needs to teachers ought to cause educational leaders to ask themselves:

1. Are they trying to motivate teachers at an appropriate level of the scale?

2. Are they blocking efforts to increase the competence and self-esteem of teachers?
3. Are they rewarding greater competence when it is exhibited?
4. Are they challenging teachers to develop greater competence and esteem by providing opportunities for this?

Those who would motivate teachers must realize that the elimination of factors which contribute to job dissatisfaction is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for obtaining teacher support and improved performance. Teachers are more likely to be motivated by activities and incentives which will move them to a higher level of satisfaction. The effective leader is one who can devise and carry out strategies to accomplish this.

Teacher Expectations—A Critical Factor for Student Achievement

Research indicates that schools with predominantly low-achieving students are characterized by low expectations on the part of teachers and administrators.

By Jerry L. Arganbright

"School climate" is today's term for what used to be described as the general atmosphere of the school; its purpose, mode of operations, and tempo. Research studies have shown that school climate can influence the motivation, measured ability, and achievement of students.

When examining the phenomenon of student achievement, school officials must be aware of the critical impact of teacher expectations. According to Kelley (1980): "Schools which attain high levels of student outcomes have faculties who: (a) accept the basic objectives of the school; (b) have a commitment to high expectations for students and for student achievement; and (c) accept responsibility for achieving stated goals." (P. 3.)

According to Lezotte and others (1980): "If teachers, principals, and other members of the school social system hold high expectations for students, they are likely to create a program that is consistent with those expectations and in which students learn what is expected. If, on the other hand, some students are expected to learn less than others, they will tend to conform to those expectations." (Pp. 25-26.)

Jerry L. Arganbright is secondary principal, Arlington High School, Arlington, Nebr.

How Are Expectations Acquired?

Expectations are a universal phenomenon; we all exist in a framework of expectations. There are a multitude of expectations that must be met on a daily basis, dependent upon the role one is fulfilling at any given time.

It is widely accepted that teachers will have expectations for their pupils along two dimensions: (1) behavior; and, (2) achievement and academic ability. Teachers develop these expectations through previously acquired information

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and through classroom encounters. In both cases, expectations based on misinformation and misperception are likely.

Effective schools have a common belief that all students can learn, and have adopted an instructional orientation that reflects this belief.

How do teachers develop prejudices about ability levels before having met the student? First, there is the "your older sister was good at writing" line. The reasoning is that the achievement of an older sibling is indicative of achievement of a younger one. Second, prejudices are developed by reviewing permanent records and formal test scores. Permanent records and tests serve as essential sources of data when properly used by the educational planner. However, "Based on this test score, I cannot expect much from this pupil" is the oft-overplayed teacher reaction.

Third, information passed on in the teachers' lounge plays a significant role in transferring student data from teacher to teacher. Last, isolating groups of pupils can reinforce powerful teacher prejudices. The effect of ability grouping on teacher expectations has been well documented: In essence, the research has shown that grouping students by ability does more to alter teacher expectations than it does to create a more stimulating learning environment.

Another factor that has received much attention in the issue of teacher expectations is social class. According to Leigh (1977), teachers know that working class children rarely are high achievers in the educational system, know that there is little point in expecting high achievement from them, and teach accordingly. Teachers tend to overestimate the ability of middle-class children while underestimating that of working class youngsters.

Another key factor in determining teacher expectations is the existence of an official curriculum. Effective schools have a common belief that all students can learn, and have adopted an instructional orientation that reflects this belief (Lezotte et al., 1980). The challenge to the administrator is to be a catalyst in creating and maintaining this belief and injecting it into the school's curriculum.

Conclusion

The most critical interacting relationship in the school is between teacher and student. Teacher expectations are a factor of the educational climate that must not be ignored. If the research regarding teacher expectations tells us anything, it is that improvements can occur.

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Fifteen Ways To Improve Classroom Teaching/Learning

These basic suggestions have helped many teachers in the past and are worth passing on to others.

By Hilmar Wagner

The following 15 ways to improve classroom teaching/learning are based on techniques that have helped many teachers, especially those new to the profession. Administrators might wish to share them with their teachers.

1. *Establish a positive classroom atmosphere.* The studious, no-nonsense atmosphere you set the first few days will determine the course your classroom will take for the year.

Spend several days getting to know each of your students through every technique available: dialogs, surveys, preassessment techniques, etc. After a rapport has been established less disruptive behavior is likely to occur and teaching can begin.

2. *Know your students.* Carefully study all of the data you have available to you on every student before you first meet them. Be careful not to prejudge students on the basis of test results. Give each student a fresh start in your classroom. Find out about your students' families, pets, hobbies, interests, jobs, etc., so that you can capitalize on these points in your instructional objectives.

Teaching is a human relations profession, and learning is enhanced when the teacher and the student can relate to one another. Spend time with your students outside the formal classroom setting—in the cafeteria, on the school grounds, at school events. This interest on your part in them as individuals rather than as members of an organized class is a positive step toward good classroom rapport.

3. *Involve all students.* Dewey's "learning by doing" is still in vogue. Busy classes that are product-oriented are less likely to be disruptive. Student input into and planning of activities

Hilmar Wagner is professor of curriculum and instruction, University of Texas, El Paso.

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causes them to take more interest and pride in these activities. Assign leadership responsibilities to the shy, withdrawn student to give him recognition. Peer pairing for tutoring and working jointly on assignments are valuable techniques for getting students involved. Be sure that the student who joins your class later in the year is quickly involved in the stream of activities.

4. *Exercise positive classroom control.* "I hear someone talking," sounds better than negatively correcting an individual, at least initially. Too often correction is given to the entire class when only a few individuals are disruptive. These are the students who need to know that the learning atmosphere is being disrupted, not the entire class.

Proximity of the teacher to the learners is important to positive classroom control. Get out from behind the desk and move around the classroom.

5. *Be familiar with the materials being presented.* Especially in the initial years of teaching, it is important for the teacher to know the materials well. Good preparation leads to better instruction and fewer disciplinary problems.

6. *Hold students' attention.* Some research cites that the attention span for high school students is 12-15 minutes.

Whenever interest begins to wane during a learning activity the time is ripe for the teacher to shift gears and use a different strategy.

7. *Maintain the proper pace of instruction.* New teachers need to find the optimum speed in presenting material, which will vary for different age groups, classes, and subjects. You can sense if some students aren't keeping up or if others appear bored, waiting to move on. Find a tempo which meets most of your students' needs. Often when we are overly enthusiastic about some activity which we like and know thoroughly, we assume that our students share our enthusiasm and can keep up with the pace of presentation, and we leave a few confused students behind.

8. *Use proper questioning techniques.* Since the questioning process is so valuable toward student involvement in learning, teachers need to make effective use of good questioning techniques. This requires a classroom atmosphere open to the process and a teacher who encourages responses and listens to them.

Pass around the honor of responding. Many students fail to become involved simply because another student beats them to the answer.

Reward responses. Nothing will evoke further responses from students better than being rewarded by the teacher with a smile and a kind word.

Pause long enough—5 to 10 seconds—for all students to think of a response. In the event the teachers sees puzzled looks on the faces of students after the question is posed, the question should be asked again or rephrased into more meaningful vocabulary. Timing in the acceptance of responses is as important in the classroom as it is on the stage.

Ask challenging questions. Too many teachers ask questions which require only memorization to respond. Questions which require analysis are more likely to create classroom discussion. The simple word "Why?" asked by the

teacher after a given response, will force students to justify answers given.

9. *Provide appropriate rewards.* The key word here is "appropriate." Rewards can be as simple as verbal praise, or public recognition. A disinterested sophomore English literature student became involved when his picture appeared in the school newspaper along with an article about a ballad he had written. Carefully written teacher comments on student papers have been proved effective.

10. *Work with individuals.* The teacher must be sure to work with those individuals who are uninvolved, who do not participate, and who are not progressing. Five minutes of concentrated attention to one student will save hours of less effective time throughout the year. That concentrated time may be just what it takes to help the student over a hurdle and likewise to show him that you care. Too much instruction is given at the group level.

11. *Use your voice properly.* Teachers are models, and the model voice should be soothing and intellectually stimulating. Since teachers do much (likely too much) of the talking in a classroom it is extremely important for them to have pleasant voices.

12. *Be patient.* Education is slow to reap its harvest. Perhaps the tenth time you tell the student he will catch on to the principle you are trying to teach.

13. *Take pride in your appearance.* Many teachers appear to be dressed for a picnic, and as a result the professional demeanor which they are looking for is absent and the picnic atmosphere prevails.

14. *Improve your language/ pronunciation.* Students have respect for the teacher who speaks correctly.

15. *Use "we," not "I" or "me."* Too many teachers overuse the wods "I" and "me." "We will watch a film" is much better than "I will show you a film." The premise here is that the teacher is trying to make a unified class and not trying to set up an "I-You" atmosphere.

Supervision and Evaluation: Helping Teachers Reach Their Maximum Potential

Here's how one school district developed an effective teacher evaluation program—one that ensured consistent evaluation standards and increased administrator-teacher interaction.

By Gary Embretson, Ellen Ferber, and Terry Langager

Effective and consistent teacher supervision and evaluation is one of the most important tasks assigned a principal. If done well, it can result in improved relationships and communicationi and personal and professional growth for teachers and administrators, and more effective teaching of students.

What Is the Focus?

A poor supervision and evaluation process, on the other hand, not only diminishes the chances for the benefits noted above, but may lead to inconsistent teaching, teacher mistrust of administrators, and a great deal of worry and tension at the end of the school year.

Independent School District 196, a 13,200-student school district in suburban Minneapolis-St. Paul, recently instituted a supervision and evaluation process for teachers that is geared toward the improvement of instruction, includes frequent interaction between administrators and teachers, and focuses on professional and personal growth and the individual needs of teachers.

Until 1980, District 196 used an informal evaluation process that required the principal to prepare two written evaluations annually about each probationary teacher and recommended that a written evaluation be prepared each year for teachers with continuing contracts. The focus was on evaluation, not supervision.

There were no consistent guidelines,

Gary Embretson is assistant principal, Apple Valley High School, Ellen Ferber is a communications specialist, and Terry Langager is principal, Rosemount Elementary School, all in Rosemount, Minn.

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no job descriptions, no goals, and no meetings with the teacher prior to the evaluation. The process, or lack of process, was frustrating for all concerned. The work load was minimal for supervisors, but positive results were minimal as well. It was difficult to provide specific assistance, and communications were strained. Teachers found the process superficial and threatening. They were not always aware of the standards against which they were being measured and, if they moved to a different school in the district, they had to cope with different standards.

Everyone concerned agreed that the process was inadequate; that consistent evaluation standards throughout the district, as well as within each school, were needed; that more positive interaction between administrators and teachers was necessary; and that increased emphasis on supportive supervision as well as evaluation was required.

Where To Start

The district set up a task force of building and district administrators to review the supervision and evaluation process in use at that time and to recommend appropriate changes. They began by developing a philosophy:

> Independent School District 196 maintains that each student is entitled to an optimal learning experience. Quality instruction is essential as a means of accomplishing this desired end. Supervision of all staff is necessary for the existence of quality instruction.
>
> Supervision encompasses the recruitment, selection, development, motivation, and evaluation of staff. It is a continuous process which requires the cooperation of all personnel.

The task force then set about reviewing models in other districts and organizations and creating a supervision and evaluation process to meet the specific needs of administrators and teachers in District 196.

The process that emerged is based on the belief that the teacher and supervisor each have a challenge: the teacher is expected to improve student learning; the supervisor is responsible for helping the teacher do whatever is necessary to improve student learning. Inherent in the process is the premise that each teacher is a professional and is competent.[1]

Supervision vs. Evaluation

Supervision and evaluation are quite distinct from one another and this distinction is recognized. Supervision is a developmental process which promotes continuing growth and development of staff members in the art of teaching; continued and increased staff motivation; and an improved instructional program. Evaluation, on the other hand, is a management function designed to maintain organizational efficiency; establish standards for staff performance; and appraise staff performance.

The intent of the District 196 process was to *observe* performance in order to improve it (supervision), and *judge* performance on the basis of accepted criteria of good teaching (evaluation). Note that the diagram of the process is on a track to symbolize the belief that supervision and evaluation are continuous.

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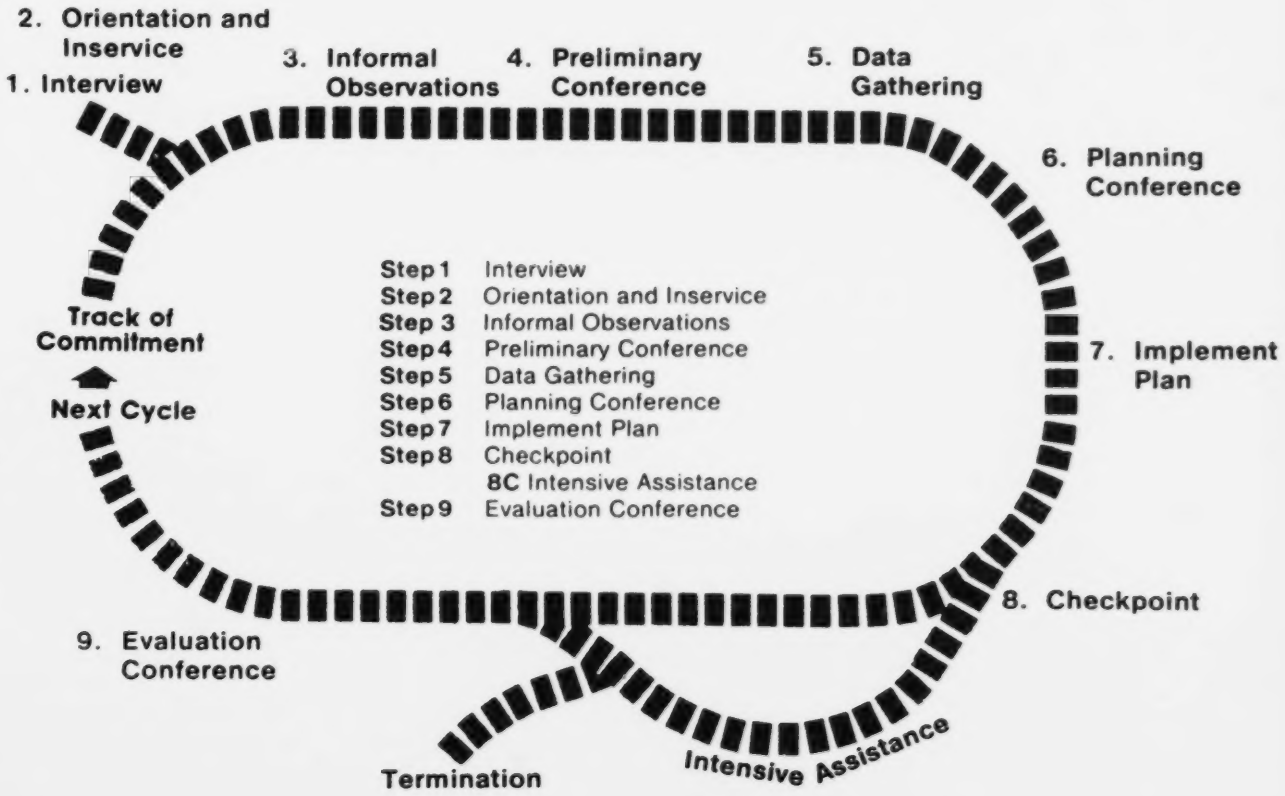
1. The process used was adapted from that described in the February 1980 *Practitioner*, published by NASSP.

Supervision and Evaluation Process



What Is the Process?

Supervision and evaluation begin even before the teacher is hired. Throughout the initial interview, as well as during new teacher orientation and inservice activities, the teacher is given every opportunity to demonstrate potential.

From the informal observations to the preliminary conference between the supervisor and the teacher, the supervisor begins building a relationship by encouraging two-way communication; listening, facilitating, and being supportive; and giving strokes and praise.

At the preliminary conference, the teacher and supervisor share their perceptions of the teacher's performance, discuss the focal points of the forthcoming evaluation, review the self-appraisal worksheet, and plan the data gathering. The data gathering—which includes observation; evaluation by self, peers, parents, and students; and collection of materials—helps the supervisor uncover any problems, test responses to them, and evaluate the degree to which the teacher reaches established goals.

The next step, the planning conference, is vitally important to the success of the evaluation, because it is at this point that the teacher makes a commitment to professional growth. The supervisor and teacher review the data that has been gathered, analyze it to identify areas of strength and weakness, develop job-related, personal performance improvement commitments (PICs), and plan the means by which the PICs will be accomplished. This cooperative goal-setting process results in a mutually agreeable focus. The goals become the core of the supervision and evaluation process.

Last Three Steps

The remaining three steps of the process—implementation of plan, checkpoint, and evaluation conference—are continuous throughout the remainder of the school year. As the teacher works on his or her PICs, the supervisor monitors and collects information on the progress of each plan. At checkpoint the supervisor decides whether the teacher is making progress.

If there is little or no evidence of progress, the teacher and the supervisor meet and establish a plan for intensive assistance. At this meeting the supervisor shares any concerns about the teacher's progress, reviews original PICs and plans, and establishes additional components of the plan as necessary. Time lines are established and both the supervisor and the teacher have specific responsibilities:

- The supervisor provides additional assistance and follow-up to the teacher and continues to monitor progress;
- The teacher directs his or her energy toward correcting or improving the identified deficiencies.

The final activity, with or without intensive assistance, is the evaluation conference. The supervisor and teacher review the progress made toward accomplishing the established PICs, and the supervisor evaluates the teacher's overall performance during the year.

The process as a whole provides a logical, accountable way to reach mutually desired goals. It is participatory,

diagnostic, and cooperative, and is based on a mutual commitment to change and growth. Its success is reflected in the comments of those who have been most involved.

From a principal: "I have several nontenured teachers who have gone through the process two times and, yes, they are much better teachers as a result. They set specific goals for themselves and work toward them."

From a teacher: "This system is a great and positive institution in this district. It has made a real improvement in the last two years. I think it has also contributed a bit to the decline in teacher turnover."

In education today we are concerned about excellence—excellence in the program offered to students, and excellence in the teaching/learning process. A participatory, individualized supervision and evaluation process such as that created in District 196 can do much to achieve such excellence.

Helping Teachers To Grow

Classroom Observations—What Should Principals Look For?

Gary E. Dunkleberger

The criteria described in this article may not be the only ones, says this educator, but they do offer an effective framework for observing teachers.

Evaluating teachers serves a twofold purpose. While it serves to quantify teaching performance for the purposes of promotion, dismissal, or nonrenewal, more importantly it assists competent teachers in recognizing both their strengths and weaknesses so that the former may be capitalized upon and the latter properly addressed.

Consequently, teacher observation should never be viewed only in the narrow perspective as a tool in the hire-fire process.

What Is the First Step?

With that in mind, evaluation instruments should be constructed in a fashion consistent with the philosophy of helping teachers grow. A major obstacle lies in the frequent teacher skepticism to this entire process. As a result, it becomes critically important that teacher observation procedures be *clearly* understood by all those who will be observed. Otherwise it makes it all too easy for a teacher to rationalize suggestions or criticism.

The initial step in this clarification process is the identification of well-

Gary E. Dunkleberger is supervisor of science for the Carroll County Public Schools, Westminster, Md.

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NASSP Bulletin, December 1982, pp. 9-15.

defined criteria to be used. If teachers know what the expectations are and those expectations are measured in an objective fashion, there can be much greater receptiveness to the results of the observation process. Ideally, each of those established criteria should be adequately detailed and examples given so that there can be no confusion between the observer and observee.

Among those that should be considered are criteria falling into the four categories of planning, technical skills, instructional skills, and classroom management.

Planning

Evidence of Planning

Good teaching begins with good planning. During any class there should be evidence that the lesson has been adequately planned and sufficient thought given to the methodologies to be employed. Critical indicators include the presence of well-prepared, written lesson plans, instructional goals, and well-conceived activities or media presentations.

For example:

- The teacher has written plans in sufficient detail that an observer can readily determine the purpose of the lesson and the procedures to be employed in its teaching.
- During the lesson the teacher utilizes a number of activities that are creative, relevant to the topics discussed, and well prepared in advance.

Material Preparation

It should also be evident that planning has resulted in the generation of adequate materials that provide for student participation in the lesson. Materials can supplement instruction by adding to the discussion or assessing student understanding. Skillful teachers generally have frequent activities that require some type of physical interaction with materials. Adequate planning and the ready availability of necessary materials add to the sense of classroom order as well as to the continuity of the lesson. For example:

- Dittos that augment the lesson are prepared in advance for distribution during the class.
- Materials to be utilized in a demonstration of molecular motion are readily at hand for the time needed so that there is no break in the lesson flow as the teacher moves to that activity.

Realistic Goals

The essence of instructional planning should be the synthesis of goals that are established as standards by which student learning may be measured. In addition, they aid students in focusing upon the direction of instruction and assist the teacher in evaluating the adequacy of that instruction. Obviously, such goals or objectives need to be realistic by being within the achievement range of the students in question, but yet not simplistic in nature.

For example:

- Written objectives for the forthcoming class are written on the board.
- The teacher starts class with a discussion of the expectations for the day's lesson.

TECHNICAL SKILLS

Set Induction

Set induction means that the teacher explains to the class the purpose of an activity and gives clear direction for carrying it out. It serves to facilitate a readiness on the part of students for what is to follow. Many teachers go beyond this minimum and help students to recall significant and applicable ideas, refer to previous learning experiences, create a mood, and otherwise attempt to arouse interest in and motivation for the lesson to come.
For example:

- The teacher uses a demonstration as an interest-getting activity at the start of class. It serves to focus student attention toward the sequential activities.
- As students enter the room, they begin a drill the teacher has already written on the board.

Instructional Aids

Although the instructor is usually the catalyst for student interaction and response, skilled teachers also use a variety of instructional aids to bring about a favorable learning situation. Effective use of mechanical devices (overhead projectors, chalkboard, motion pictures, film projectors, etc.) may also be used for efficient presentation of information, setting moods, changing the focus of attention and, in general, adding variety. This variety tends to induce interest and foster greater student effort. In addition, the use of those aids often assists in clarifying certain important points or demonstrates phenomena not observable through other means.
For example:

- The teacher uses a movie to illustrate the principles of continental drift. Students are given a series of questions for which they are to collect information during the film.

Transitions/Pace

The pace of a lesson and the transitions that are made between activities play an important role in maintaining student interest and assisting them in the understanding of material. Individual student progress within any activity should be monitored continuously. Effective use of this kind of surveillance provides individual assistance to students in achieving the objectives of the lesson. The process also leads to the gathering of information necessary for the teacher to determine the pace of instruction.

When a lesson is composed of a number of activities, it becomes necessary to incorporate transitions between them. In the execution of these transitions the teacher demonstrates the highest level of technical skill. A good transition is one in which closure of the first shades almost imperceptibly into set induction for the next. Papers are collected or distributed, seating arrangements altered, and the focus of attention shifted. Without such skills, teachers often experience an interval of chaos between activities and students fail to see the interconnection of ideas. With good transitions the lesson does not appear to be an accumulation of nearly unrelated segments in the students' eyes.
For example:

- During instruction on methods to be employed in a problem solving tech-

nique, the teacher observed that the lesson was too fast for most students and made an adjustment accordingly.

- When the class concluded going over a homework assignment, the teacher asked one student to collect the papers. Meanwhile, the teacher began the presentation of new material by discussing how concepts on the homework assignment could be applied.

Evaluation/Feedback of Student Progress

For most students, learning is a cyclic process. Students do not usually learn a series of concepts in a simple straight-line, sequential fashion only to be tested at the end. Instead, students many times need to make a learning attempt and then test their understanding before proceeding. When it becomes evident that the acquisition of the concept has not been achieved, it becomes necessary for students to again work through the learning process, with different instructional materials.

Consequently, it is imperative that throughout the learning sequence students be given frequent feedback upon which they may base a more realistic and objective perception of their level of concept acquisition. The effective instructor frequently provides students with information related to their progress and understanding of materials prior to a summative evaluation. At the most effective level, teachers not only provide students with this information, but also involve students in collecting and assessing the relevant data.
For example:

- At the end of class, the teacher distributes to students a brief quiz on critical points in the day's lesson, gives students an opportunity to respond and then discusses the items. Quizzes are not collected because the sheets also contain specific remedial assignments given for each concept not understood.
- Following instruction on the procedures to be used in balancing chemical equations, the teacher gives students a homework assignment consisting of 20 such problems. The correct answers for the first 5 and alternating ones thereafter are provided on the back of the homework sheet.
- After instruction on procedures to be employed in solving a type of problems, students are given a number of practice problems. While students are working on these, the teacher circulates around the room checking the work of each student to keep them on task and provide feedback on their progress.

Closure

Every learning activity should be brought to closure. To do this, it is necessary for the teacher to summarize what has been done and explain how the ideas associated with the activity are related to previous discussions or an assignment or materials to come in the near future. In most cases, it includes an opportunity for students to make some assessment of what they have learned, even if it is in a verbal fashion. When successful, closure will promote a sense of accomplishment and finality for both students and teacher.
For example:

- At the completion of a lab session in which students used a microscope to

observe plant and animal cells, the teacher directed a discussion among students on the differences between the cellular structure of the two. Information was then related to concepts learned the previous day. Subsequently, the teacher transferred the information from the lab to the next task at hand.

- Following a discussion of types of bonding, the teacher gave a brief quiz at the end of the class.
- At the conclusion of the lesson, the teacher asked students to summarize what they had learned that day.

INSTRUCTIONAL SKILLS

Student Motivation

"On-task" behavior by students is an essential part of the learning process. Obviously, if students are not paying attention, the quality of the teacher presentation is immaterial. An 80 percent level of attending behavior by student should be considered as a minimal standard.

For example:

- Data are collected at one-minute intervals to determine the level of attending/non-attending behavior by students. Information collected indicated that they were on task 95 percent of the time.
- During an observation, students participated enthusiastically by raising their hands, volunteering information, and asking questions.

Quality and Variety of Activities

When instruction consists of few learning activities, motivational interest tends to drop off in a geometric or logarithmic fashion. A variety of activities of an appropriate length help maintain the interest level of students. While activities that are extremely long tend to result in a lack of student attention, activities which are very short in nature may result in students perceiving a lesson to be choppy and without continuity, particularly where adequate transitions have not been made.

Skillful teachers provide a number of activities for each session and present them in a fashion that promotes continuity. A good lesson will generally consist of not one, but a series of activities of both an individual and group nature. Activities should be varied to appeal to a number of sensory stimuli and held to a length that will maintain student interest.

For example:

- During the class the instructor had an adequate number of activities to prevent the onset of student boredom. These included a brief review of the previous day's lesson, a short discussion of the homework assignment, the presentation of a new concept with the aid of an overhead projector, a related demonstration followed by a group discussion of the phenomenon observed coupled with more information, and, finally, a short quiz.
- During class the teacher used a series of activities that required the participation of all students. Each had an introduction that established its purpose and placed it in perspective with the information and activities that preceded.

Communication

Learning activities facilitate an effective communication of subject matter with students. Information is presented

in a clear, concise fashion that is readily understood. Questioning techniques are employed to elicit higher levels of thought from participants rather than simple recall of facts. A skilled instructor is able to involve nearly all students in the class discussion so that their contributions are acknowledged with appropriate reinforcement. Students are given sufficient time to analyze questions being asked and to formulate responses. The verbal interaction incorporates a suitable balance of teacher-initiated and student-initiated exchanges.
For example:

- The pupils are actively engaged in dialog with the teacher, either questioning or responding to the instructor's queries. The teacher frequently offers positive reinforcement for constructive student comments while refraining from the outright rejection of less substantial contributions that would discourage future efforts on the part of the student.
- The teacher is receptive to questions and requests for assistance from individual students during quiet study in the class.
- During the course of the lesson, the teacher regularly employs questions at the synthesis or evaluation level and allots students sufficient time to formulate responses.
- The teacher raises a question for students to consider and research for the next lesson to stimulate communication the following day.

Classroom Management

Social Management

Through their interaction youngsters assigned to the same classroom soon begin to develop relationships and become a social unit. This social unit must be managed in order for a classroom to be an effective focus of learning. A social unit is distinguished by rules governing conduct under many different circumstances. Most important are the rules governing conversation and movement around the classroom. An orderly classroom is one in which rules are clearly understood by all involved and regularly observed.

That aspect of social management susceptible to clearest description is the means by which materials are distributed and collected in an orderly fashion. When a teacher employs students to assist in these important activities, it promotes the organization of the class as an effective social unit. On the other hand, when a teacher carries out all of these routines alone, the students may feel they have no part in management and are thus free during intervals when materials are distributed and collected to give little attention to the activities of the classroom.
For example:

- At the conclusion of a lab exercise, students clean their area and put away their equipment with a minimum of direction from the teacher.

Interpersonal Regard

Clearly, the classroom climate and the interactions within the class have an overwhelming influence upon student motivation and learning. To a large extent, a conducive climate and positive interactions result from the regard individuals within that class have for each other. The atmosphere should reflect respect among and between the pupils, as well as respect between the pupil and

teacher. Teacher rapport is an essential component.
For example:

- The teacher avoids pupil embarrassment by private admonishment of a student's inappropriate behavior.
- The students, when engaged in a discussion, are considerate and attentive while others are speaking.
- The teacher relinquishes the lesson plan of the day to establish an improved learning climate, or to discuss any infraction of mutual regard within the classroom setting.

Discipline

Good discipline is essential to good classroom management. Students should be fully aware of teacher expectations and behavioral boundaries. Inappropriate conduct should be dealt with fairly, firmly, and in a fashion consistent with proper approaches to classroom management. Discipline should clearly be understood to not consist solely of negative reinforcement and punishment. An essential component in the promotion of good discipline management is the recognition and positive reinforcement of appropriate behavior.
For example:

- During the class, students conducted themselves in an orderly, reasonable fashion that served as an indication that classroom routines and expectations had been clearly established.
- As a student began talking with another youngster, the teacher began staring in that direction, indicating to the student in a nonverbal fashion that the behavior was inappropriate.
- Because one particular student's conduct and participation in the class was much better than usual, the teacher called the student up to the desk after class and commented positively upon that fact.

Conclusion

While these criteria are not the only ones that might be employed, they do offer an effective framework for teacher observation. Most importantly, they specify expectations in advance of use with a teacher. Knowing what is expected and how one will be judged are probably among the most important characteristics of a teacher observation procedure that can be viewed as helpful by teachers. Without that acceptance of the results there can be little growth.

Reliable Rating Sheets: A Key to Effective Teacher Evaluation

Richard A. King

A survey was made recently of teacher evaluation instruments in 32 New York school districts. The findings, presented here, might prove helpful to administrators who wish to improve the effectiveness of their own and staff evaluation instruments.

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF teacher performance evaluation sheets is dependent to a large extent on whether teachers receive feedback and on the accuracy of the information provided to supervisors. Information obtained from classroom observations frequently is crucial input to such administrative decisions as promoting, retaining, and granting tenure to faculty members.

Although specific evaluation techniques and procedures vary among school districts, the majority of school principals and supervisors rely on some form of a rating sheet to assess teaching effectiveness. An examination of rating sheets used in two counties of western New York during the 1976-77 school year was conducted to determine the similarity of criteria used with indicators of effective teaching performance cited in recent literature.[1] The conclusions of this

Richard A. King is assistant professor of educational administration at the University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.

1. The study described in this article was conducted while the author was assistant professor of educational administration at the State University of New York, College at Fredonia. The author is indebted to Ronald E. Hull of the Educational Research and Development Center for his assistance in conducting the study.

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study should prove helpful in the revision of rating sheets used by school officials responsible for the evaluation of teaching performance.

Indicators of Teaching Effectiveness

Many studies have been conducted in an attempt to identify measures of teaching effectiveness for use in predicting success in the classroom and improving teaching techniques. Rosenshine and Furst (1971), and Mohan and Hull (1976) reviewed studies in teaching effectiveness and identified the following concepts as being closely related to pupil achievement:

1. *Clarity*. Organizes lessons coherently, is able to explain clearly, and demonstrates intellectual effectiveness.
2. *Criticism*. Evaluates student behavior and learning.
3. *Difficulty of instruction*. Presents appropriate course or lesson materials for ability and readiness of students.
4. *Effective communication*. Provides both significant information and prompt feedback through both verbal and nonverbal expression.
5. *Enthusiasm*. Shows excitement about the subject; stimulates lively interest; and is dynamic, interesting, and imaginative.
6. *Expert knowledge of subject*. Has grasp of cognitive organization of the subject matter and demonstrates skill in sequencing of learning tasks.
7. *Fluency and flexibility*. Employs various classroom activities, instructional materials and techniques, reinforcements, and types of feedback.
8. *Indirectness*. Encourages pupils to discover underlying concepts, to ask more questions, and to express their own ideas; utilizes students' statements and ideas.
9. *Listening*. Looks at the student, concentrates carefully on what is said, and asks the student to clarify or rephrase the question.
10. *Motivation and reinforcement*. Assesses each student on the basis of desired behaviors, determines each student's reward preference, approves of each student's effort and achievement, accepts and uses ideas of pupils, and varies classroom environment through interest centers and unfamiliar activities.
11. *Opportunity to learn criterion material*. Spends appropriate amount of time on topics; relates material covered in class with the criterion instrument (e.g., test).

12. *Probing behavior*. Encourages students to elaborate further when making comments or asking questions.
13. *Questioning*. Asks questions to clarify, to stimulate critical thinking, or to redirect learning; uses multi-level questions (i.e., of different cognitive levels).
14. *Structuring comments*. Provides an overview or summary of the lesson, clearly identifying aims and objectives.
15. *Task orientation*. Demonstrates behavior which is achievement oriented or businesslike.
16. *Variability*. Uses different cognitive levels of discourse and varies levels of student tasks.
17. *Warmth*. Is friendly, trusting, understanding, sensitive; praises and encourages student behavior.

It was concluded in these studies that the effectiveness of a classroom teacher and achievement gains of students depend upon the interaction of the above factors. If rating instruments are to provide an accurate measure of teaching effectiveness, they should assess the teacher's performance on criteria which are reflective of such indicators.

Criteria Used in Classroom Observations

School officials in all but two school districts in the counties studied agreed to participate by forwarding copies of all rating sheets used during the 1976-77 school year. Rating sheets were analyzed to determine those criteria that were rated most often during classroom observations, and to determine which of those indicators cited in the literature were included on rating sheets.

Administrators in four of the 32 districts indicated that no rating sheet was used, or that no specific criteria were listed on the form employed in evaluating teaching performance. Among the remaining 28 districts, rating instruments varied both in the number of criteria included and in the complexity of descriptions of each item.

Several forms listed only a few criteria, leaving space for the observer's comments. Others included a detailed breakdown of complex criteria, with a three-to-five-point Likert scale of ratings to be checked by the observer. Several forms provided detailed descriptions of each criterion; others provided examples of extreme conditions for each item (e.g., high and low ratings or positive and negative attributes).

An analysis of the most commonly rated criteria of teaching performance was conducted under five categories: personal characteristics,

classroom management, relationships with community and staff, relationships with pupils, and lesson planning and presentation. An abbreviated report of the findings is presented in Table 1, indicating the percent of the 28 districts that employed each criterion in rating instruments.

TABLE 1
Percent of School Districts Using Each Criterion To Assess Teaching Performance

Criteria	*Percent*
Personal Characteristics	
1. Voice, speech, use of English	85.7
2. Personal health, vitality, poise	78.6
3. Personal appearance	75.0
4. Resourcefulness, creativity, initiative	71.4
5. Command of subject matter	67.9
6. Professional advancement	57.1
7. Responsibility, dependability, trustworthiness	57.1
8. Judgment, tact	39.3
9. Flexibility, fairness, patience	35.7
Classroom Management	
1. Physical condition of the classroom	92.9
2. Attention to records and routine matters	71.4
3. Use and care of equipment, facilities, and materials	39.3
Relationships with Community and Staff	
1. Attitude toward supervision	64.3
2. Relations with staff	64.3
3. Attitude toward parents and community	53.6
4. Involvement in extracurricular activities	39.3
Relationships with Pupils	
1. Pupil participation and reaction to lesson	100.0
2. Control of class, rapport with students	96.4
3. Concern for pupils	67.9
4. Effect on character and personality growth	67.9
Lesson Planning and Presentation	
1. Effective use of methods, materials, and time	100.0
2. Planning and preparation	96.4
3. Instruction adapted to individual needs and capacities	85.7
4. Subject matter presentation	
a. Provides variety and motivation	64.3
b. Goes beyond facts and/or text only	60.7
c. Uses questions skillfully	57.1
d. Uses home assignments effectively	53.6
e. Presents objectives, gives clear instructions	46.4
f. Evaluates, uses tests effectively	46.4
g. Varies reinforcement of skills	42.9
h. Provides organization, orderly progression, and transition	28.6
i. Provides evidence of summarization	25.0
j. Follows course of study	17.9

In order to match criteria actually rated with indicators identified in the research studies cited, a total of 81 items used on rating sheets were selected as being representative of criteria listed in Table 1. The items selected were examined under the framework provided by studies on teaching effectiveness. Forty of the items were judged to measure at least one of the concepts identified in the studies cited.

The number of times concepts appeared to be measured in the rating instruments analyzed is presented in Table 2. Eight of the 81 items selected from rating sheets, for example, were related to "motivation and reinforcement." Concepts that were rated most often were motivation and reinforcement, task orientation, and warmth. Those which were rated least often were enthusiasm, indirectness, listening, probing behavior, and questioning.

TABLE 2
Indicators of Teaching Effectiveness in Rating Sheets Analyzed

Indicator	*Frequency*
Motivation and reinforcement	8
Task orientation	6
Warmth	6
Criticism	5
Fluency and flexibility	5
Opportunity to learn criterion material	5
Clarity	4
Difficulty of instruction	3
Expert knowledge of subjects	3
Effective communication	2
Structuring comments	2
Variability	2
Enthusiasm	1
Indirectness	1
Listening	1
Probing behavior	1
Questioning	1

Conclusions and Recommendations

More than 80 percent of the rating instruments analyzed contained items to assess such personal characteristics as voice, speech, and use of English; management of the physical conditions of the classroom; pupil participation in the lesson; control of the class and rapport with students; lesson planning and preparation, the effective use of methods, materials, and time; and the adaptation of instruction to individual needs and capacities.

Many of the criteria used in rating teaching performance did not fall within categories identified in the literature as related to teaching effectiveness. This is not to suggest that those criteria should be removed from rating sheets, since teachers are expected to perform several roles in addition to that of classroom instructor. The maintenance of good relations with parents and the community, for example, is as much a responsibility of the teacher as of any school employee.

In order to increase the reliability and effectiveness of classroom observation and evaluation, administrators and teachers should cooperatively assess and, if necessary, revise rating sheets employed in those processes. Objectives of classroom observations and teacher evaluation should be specified to ensure that rating sheets are providing an assessment of district priorities and goals.

Two rating instruments should be developed for use in assessing teacher performance. One instrument should be used in periodic classroom observations to assess teaching performance. Criteria included should be closely related to the teaching-learning process.

A second rating sheet should be designed to provide feedback on an annual basis concerning performance of additional responsibilities assumed by teachers. Criteria employed in such rating sheets should be identified as being related to district priorities and objectives of supplementary roles of the teacher.

Cooperative analysis and revision of rating instruments to reflect district objectives and criteria identified in research on teaching effectiveness should improve the reliability of such reports. The process of revision outlined here should provide both teachers and administrators a better understanding of purposes of evaluation and of the criteria to be rated, thus improving the effectiveness of observations and evaluations.

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Developing a Professional Growth Program in Small Schools

David Halstead

ALL SCHOOL DISTRICTS, regardless of size, must provide ongoing programs of professional growth for certificated staff. Recent research confirms this.

Teachers today are remaining in the same position for longer periods of time, thus increasing the chance that they will become stale, or burned out. What this means to the administrator is that school districts must take the initiative in providing educational programs for teaching staff to maintain their level of effectiveness.

A recent Rand Study showed that teachers seem to "peak out" after five to seven years of teaching. The passage of time seems to diminish the capacity for many teachers to change, and dampens their enthusiasm for innovation. Schools cannot remain static and expect teachers to take the initiative for reeducation. The problem of inservice must be met in a direct and aggressive manner.

The idea of a successful, ongoing inservice program seems to be out of reach for many small school districts. Since there is seldom an abundance of funds or support personnel, an inservice program means to the building principal just another hat to wear; added responsibility and time constraints on an already too-short day. However, expending the time and effort in developing such a program can do nothing but enhance a school's educational program.

The Planning Phase—Who Should Be Involved?

- *The Principal*—The primary responsibility for change within any school rests upon the shoulders of the building administrator. The principal must be dedicated to inservice from the outset in order for it to be a success.
- *The Professional Growth Committee*—The principal should select, from the staff, several individuals who have demonstrated initiative, innovation, and cooperation in the past. They should be briefed on what the plan is and why the principal feels that a need exists in this area. These individuals must be convinced of the need for an inservice program in order for it to be a success.
- *The Superintendent*—The superintendent needs to know what is being planned, and why. Financial assistance, district incentives

David Halstead is principal, Nooksack Valley Junior-Senior High School, Nooksack, Wash.

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(i.e., salary schedule remuneration, district compensation), or support on the district level may be needed down the line. In small schools, a direct line of communication usually exists between the principal and superintendent, and it is very important that this line be kept open.

The Implementation Process

- *Preplanning*—The building principal must do the homework. Some research is necessary to assess the current need for a program. Such items as the average staff age, placement on the salary schedule, and recent movement on the schedule due to the accumulation of college credits are of vital concern. In addition, some research on recent studies in the area of inservice should be undertaken. An ERIC search might be a good starting point. Finally, the principal should pick some key staff members for the professional growth committee, as well as ask for volunteers from the staff.
- *Orientation*—Following the preplanning, the principal must orient the professional growth committee. It is important for the committee members to be in agreement with the direction to be taken. Research has shown that the most successful programs lean heavily on teacher input.
- *Needs Assessment*—Before deciding on any specific direction or program for the staff, their interests, strengths, weaknesses, and needs should be explored. It is best if the committee develops its own needs assessment tool. The committee is closest to the situation and can provide the necessary insight into its development. After the administration of the assessment, the results need to be analyzed by the committee and reported to the staff, and decisions as to the direction of program need to be made. Keeping the needs assessment instrument as short and simple as possible will also enhance the possibility of quality staff input. (See Figure 1.)
- *The Program*—The program should be ongoing, as opposed to a one-shot presentation. The goal is to change teacher attitudes about what professional growth actually is—that being an ongoing process of education and reeducation that one is involved in throughout one's professional career. In addition, the first program must be well-planned and thought out, for its success also may determine the success of future programs. A variety of programs should be provided to spark interest in as many staff members as possible.
- *Evaluation*—Each program should be evaluated by its participants, with the professional growth committee reviewing the evaluations for the benefit of future planning. This is an important aspect, since

teachers will begin to feel that their opinions count and will begin to feel more a part of the program.

Some Suggestions for Programs

- *Mini-Growth Programs*—At the beginning of each year the principal and professional growth committee should identify some specific topics that could be presented during a portion of the faculty meeting. These might include recent research into affective teaching techniques, child abuse, and curricular innovations. The important point is the committee input. It is also a good idea to solicit suggestions from staff members who are not on the committee, but who might have some good suggestions.
- *"Food For Thought"*—Many organizations provide, at a nominal fee, weekly handouts on items of interest to teachers. Although not all teachers will agree with what is presented, they will at least do some thinking about the topic for the week.

From time to time the building principal may come across an interesting or controversial article in his readings. Such articles might be distributed to teachers for professional growth, and often become topics of discussion in the teachers' lounge and at the lunch table.

The principal should continually strive to provide the teaching staff with educational items worth their consideration. In small schools, where many staff members do little professional reading or outside study, the principal's "food for thought" may be the only items that they see of a professional nature.

- *Off-Campus Visitations*—Allowing teachers to visit other schools is a good way to keep teachers motivated to try new ideas. The cost to a district is minimal, since substitute pay and teacher transportation may be the only requirements. This is where it pays for a building principal to be aware of recent educational developments, and to stay abreast of who's doing what, where.
- *On-Campus Courses*—Providing college courses on or near the high school campus can be a valuable addition to any program. Many colleges willingly provide such services and encourage involvement by small school districts.
- *Guest Speakers*—From time to time it is a good idea to invite guest speakers to address your faculty. Many professionals will do short programs for free or at a nominal fee. In larger school districts individuals often are hired by the district to do such things, and many will freely help the smaller schools for as little as transportation expenses. Once again, it pays to know people and to call around to find out what can be provided.

Figure 1
Needs Assessment

Yes	No	
___	___	1. I have been teaching for at least five years.
___	___	2. I have not taken any college classes during the last five years.
___	___	3. Overall, I am satisfied with the job that I am doing at Nooksack Valley High School.
___	___	4. Overall, I feel that Nooksack Valley High School does a pretty good job of educating students.
___	___	5. According to recent Harris Polls, discipline is the number one problem nationally. I believe it is also Nooksack Valley's number one problem.
___	___	6. I set aside at least one hour per week for professional reading.
___	___	7. I believe that I could improve upon my performance as a teacher.
___	___	8. I am willing to commit some of my own time in order to grow professionally.
___	___	9. As a teacher I believe that my professional needs are being met.
___	___	10. I believe that the school should take a more active role in the area of professional growth.
___	___	11. I believe that programs designed for professional growth should be held at the closest proximity to where the majority of participants live.
___	___	12. As a professional educator what areas do you feel you would like to improve personally?
		13. What problems do you see at Nooksack Valley High School that you would like to see resolved?

I would take part in professional growth workshops in the following areas: (please check)

___ A. Classroom Discipline
___ B. Positive Attitude Toward Learning
___ C. Curriculum Revision
___ D. Sex Bias and Sex Discrimination
___ E. Classroom Motivation
___ F. Instructional Theory Into Practice
___ G. Mastery Learning
___ H. Stress Reduction Workshops
___ I. Reading in Curricular Areas
___ J. Sanity in the Classroom
___ K. Other _____

"Why It Won't Work Myths"

Many administrators shy away from the development of an inservice program for their building or district, citing some common myths for their reasoning.

- *"Our district can't afford the cost"*—The cost for a program is dependent upon the program and the imagination of the building principal and committee in its development. There are many sources that can be used to minimize costs. Nearby school districts may have individuals with expertise in given areas. Most local principals associations can provide leads for programs. Many times, colleges and universities willingly offer classes on high school campuses or in rural locations, offering credit to the participants. In our particular area, the Educational Service District (comprised of approximately four counties) provides funds for inservice programs of up to several hundred dollars per district per year. In addition, innovative grant proposals may also contribute funds from the federal government for small school districts. Packaged programs may be purchased from various national outlets. However, such programs may not be what you are looking for, so shop around before you buy.
- *"We can't offer it when people can take it"*—This can be a real problem. Coaches never seem to have any free time and there seems to be some activity going on all the time. The best way to deal with this is to take the initiative of scheduling a program and hope that it will be of enough interest to get it off the ground. It should be remembered that not everyone will take part in all programs. But if you have reached some you have made some progress.

One item to remember is that people who do not wish to be involved in a program will use this as an excuse. In their case, no time will work out for them. If your program is directly related to priorities listed on the needs assessment, then the odds are good that involvement by the teaching staff will be good.

- *"Transportation is a problem"*—With the cost of gas moving evermore skyward, one must consider this. But if the program can be provided in a near-by location more people will take part. If a larger portion of your staff live in another district, don't be afraid to ask that district if it would co-sponsor programs. It may be just the initiative the other district was looking for.
- *"Nobody wants to take classes"*—This is simply not true. Educators, on the whole, are concerned about staying abreast of new developments in education. To not provide a program is to assume that your staff is not professional enough to want to grow, and I don't believe that many administrators would make such a claim.

Conclusion

It is possible for small schools to provide ongoing and innovative programs for professional growth. It takes nothing more than some planning and commitment on the part of the building principal and a cooperative professional growth committee. The important point is to begin somewhere, not get discouraged easily, and continually seek input from the staff for items of interest to them.

The wider the range of programs that a school district can provide, the greater the chance for total staff involvement. Keeping one's ear to the ground for what teachers want and need is indeed important.

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Staff Recruitment and Inservice Development in Smaller Schools

Charles Reavis
Shamus Mehaffie

ADMINISTRATORS OF SMALL SCHOOLS are often squeezed by difficult circumstances, most especially in staff recruitment and inservice development. Our conviction, however, is that they can achieve excellence even within the restraints that necessarily exist in smaller schools.

Before we get into staff recruitment and inservice development, let's outline the "desirable characteristics" of teachers for small schools. If you recruit teachers with these characteristics, fine; if not, they can be the basis of your inservice program.

In brief, the ideal teacher for the small school should:

- Be able to teach more than one subject and more than one grade level.
- Be able to teach students of a wide range of abilities in the same classroom during the same time span.
- Be knowledgeable about materials and resources and requisition procedures for these.
- Be able to direct a variety of extracurricular or co-curricular activities.
- Be able to supervise and assist students who are taking correspondence courses.

In addition, teachers in small schools may have to do things that definitely exceed the norm for teachers in larger schools, including:

- Teach different subjects in alternate years.
- Combine pupils of more than one subject or grade in a single class.
- Represent the "larger world" and act as a bridge to it.

Key to Effective Recruiting

The key to recruiting teachers having these abilities and characteristics is for the principal to work out a procedure or plan for recruitment. Three basic features of such a plan are:

1. Get the entire community to cooperate in attracting good teachers. Attracting qualified teachers is not just the responsibility of school

Charles Reavis is professor of educational administration and Shamus Mehaffie is associate dean of the College of Education, Texas Tech University, Lubbock.

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administrators. Community backing and warmth of reception provide effective intangible rewards for teaching in a small community. Civic clubs and organizations might participate in giving teachers a sense of being needed and appreciated. Principals should emphasize the role of community leaders in holding professionalism in high regard.

2. Publish an attractive brochure as an effective means of recruitment. Emphasize such community features as less expensive housing, friendly acceptance by the community, and opportunities for professional advancement. The brochure should also deal frankly with the kinds of things that may concern prospective teachers, including community expectations regarding personal conduct, extra- and co-curricular assignments required of teachers, recreational opportunities, salary schedules, information about school facilities, faculty (who they are, where they came from, how long they have been in the community), and inservice education opportunities. The brochure should attractively and accurately portray teaching in your community. Because you will not often be able to recruit in person, your brochure will have to be an effective attention-getting device for prospective teachers.
3. Invite teachers in training to visit your school. Most teacher-training institutions seek places for their students to gain "real life" experiences. Entering a cooperative arrangement with such institutions can be mutually advantageous to everyone involved. Sending a school bus to bring prospective teachers on a field trip is the kind of gesture that can open the door for many other kinds of contact. A key to these efforts is to locate the decision maker at the college or university department of education. This may be a department chairperson or the director of student teaching. A trip to the campus to discuss your interest—perhaps bringing pictures of your school buildings, residences where student teachers might live—would be appropriate and might encourage the key person to direct student teachers to you. After you have made your contact, it is important to check back from time to time, to continue to express your interest, and to inquire about inducements that might be attractive to student teachers.

For the first time in many years smaller schools may be able to compete with larger schools for teachers, especially because life away from the cities seems to be more popular than a decade ago.

Even your best recruitment efforts will obviously not always yield teachers with the characteristics you need. At this point you must turn to inservice education to help good candidates develop into good teachers for the smaller school.

Inservice Development Is Essential

The key to inservice development and teacher evaluation is available in every school, large or small: the principal.

Numerous studies have verified the central importance of the principal in inservice and teacher evaluation. Many principals, however, feel inadequate to the task. This feeling may be particularly true of the small school principal, perhaps isolated from sources of professional growth and feeling badly in need of inservice himself.

Inservice need not be a substantial departure from current practice, requiring an outside expert. And teacher evaluation need not be the fear-inducing experience that it so often is. Inservice and evaluation can focus on refining skills that are relatively familiar and already in place. Principals might use the following model.

INSERVICE AND EVALUATION MODEL

1. Principal and teachers read and study current research on teacher effectiveness as part of the inservice requirement.
2. Teachers report—perhaps during faculty meetings, or at lunch meetings—the research they have read.
3. Each teacher *and the principal* select an inservice focus for the year based on the research reports or on desirable characteristics mentioned earlier in this article.
4. Principal discusses each teacher's personal growth objective with th teacher and completes a professional growth agreement.
5. Principal observes teachers periodically during the year and gives teachers feedback on their progress toward goal attainment on the professional growth agreement.
6. For any inservice days available, the teacher develops a plan *with the principal* that will assist in achieving the targets stated in the professional growth agreement. Options for activities would include professional reading, videotaping and playback with analysis, learning with two or three teachers to analyze each other for progress toward the growth target, visitations to teachers in other districts known to be effective in the teacher's growth objective (the principal might call a fellow principal in another district to locate the teacher to be visited), and so forth.

While this plan is admittedly not radical, it does contain several features associated with effective inservice and evaluation programs:

- It is focused on self-selected objectives by the teacher.
- It is selected from a group of teacher behaviors that the main body

of current research holds to be related to pupil achievement, and/or behaviors needed by teachers in smaller schools.

- It is led by the principal and is located in buildings.
- It is a year-long focus as contrasted with one day inspirational efforts that are soon forgotten and almost never translated into practice in the classroom.
- The teachers commit themselves to change, individually.
- Teachers receive feedback on their progress toward their individually selected goals.
- It is a planned, positive, and growth-promoting approach, rather than one allowing professional "drift."

Conclusion

The principal's job is not so much to create change as it is to create situations in which change can occur. If we are agreed that any teachers recruited to smaller schools will be unlikely to possess the many special skills needed, then it becomes clear that adoption of a plan for professional growth is a major responsibility of principals in smaller schools.

For Better Staff Management

You Can Be a One Minute Principal

This popular management system has great potential value for administrators as they work with inexperienced and marginal teachers—and it only takes a minute.

By Richard Brown

The basis for one of the most popular management systems today is *The One Minute Manager*, by Kenneth Blanchard and Spencer Johnson. As the authors indicate, theirs is "a practical approach to getting people to produce valuable results, and to feel good about themselves, the organization, and the other people with whom they work."

Their management system also has potential value for principals as they work with new, inexperienced teachers or with marginal teachers who have not reached their full potential.

The One Minute Principal applies "Three Secrets":

1. One Minute Goal Setting
2. One Minute Praising
3. One Minute Reprimands.

Richard Brown is associate professor of educational leadership at Auburn University, Montgomery, Ala.

One Minute Goal Setting

The first step in One Minute Goal Setting is to know what you would like to have happen and then take the necessary actions toward attaining the goal.

The six steps of One Minute Goal Setting are:

1. Meet with each teacher to decide what his or her goals should be
2. Agree about what constitutes good performance, based on these goals
3. Write all of the goals on a single sheet of paper, using less than 250 words
4. Encourage teachers to re-read each goal frequently—it requires only a minute or so
5. Encourage teachers to take a minute every once in a while during the day to appraise their performance
6. Determine whether or not the performance matches the goal.

Principals have three choices as man-

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agers. First, they can hire winners, assist them in setting their goals, then leave them alone. Second, they can hire teachers with the potential to be winners and systematically train them to become winners.

Third, they can close their eyes and pray that the teachers work out.

Since the number one motivator of people is feedback, One Minute Goal Setting is a basic tool for productive behavior. All too often, principals know what they want their teachers to do, but they don't bother to tell them. They assume that the teachers know. Feedback may be the "Breakfast of Champions," but you must have goals on which to base the feedback.

One Minute Praising

When giving specific feedback about how the teachers are doing, remember that your goal is to help teachers enjoy their work and succeed as productive faculty members. Therefore, let them know when they're doing a good job as well as when they're doing poorly.

After setting the One Minute Goals, stay in close contact with teachers and observe their performance very closely. Require them to record their progress for your review. Put the accent on the positive.

When giving the One Minute Praise, look the teachers straight in the eye and tell them precisely what they did right and how good you feel about what they did.

The seven steps of One Minute Praising are:

1. Tell teachers *up front* that you are going to let them know how they are doing
2. Praise them immediately
3. Tell them specifically what they did right
4. Tell them how good you feel about what they did right, and how it helps the school and the students
5. Stop for a moment of silence to let them "feel" how good you feel
6. Encourage them to do more of the same
7. Shake hands with the teachers and make it clear that you support their success in the school.

Often, principals wait until teachers do something exactly right before they praise them. As a result, many teachers never perceive themselves as high performers.

This is particularly true of new, inexperienced teachers. They are welcomed aboard, introduced to everybody, and then left alone. Not only are they not praised for doing anything approximately right, they are "zapped" periodically in order to keep them moving.

If inexperienced teachers don't perform well, go back to One Minute Goal Setting and make sure that they understand what is expected of them and that they have some knowledge of what good performance is.

The One Minute Reprimand

The third secret to becoming a One Minute Principal, the One Minute Reprimand, is initiated when teachers know how to do certain tasks well but make mistakes while performing them.

As soon as you become aware of a teacher's mistake, confirm the facts, go directly to the teacher, look him or her straight in the eye, and share your feelings about the incident—anger, annoyance, frustration, disappointment.

This part of the reprimand should last

only about 30 seconds. Then let the teacher know that you perceive him or her as highly competent and worthy of your respect, and that you see the mistake as an aberration. To avoid defensiveness, remember to criticize only the teacher's behavior, not the teacher as a person. This will also prevent the teacher from trying to rationalize the mistake by fixing the blame on you or on somebody else.

The nine steps of the One Minute Reprimand are:

1. Tell teachers beforehand that you are going to let them know, in no uncertain terms, how they are doing
2. Reprimand the teacher immediately
3. Tell the teacher specifically what he or she did wrong
4. Tell the teacher how you feel about what he or she did wrong—in no uncertain terms
5. Stop for a few seconds of uncomfortable silence to let the teacher feel how you feel
6. Shake hands with the teacher to let him or her know you are honestly on his or her side
7. Remind the teacher how much you value him or her
8. Reaffirm that you think well of the teacher but not of his or her performance in this situation
9. Realize that when the reprimand is over, it is over.

Several factors make the One Minute Reprimand effective. First, the feedback in the One Minute Reprimand is immediate. Unless discipline occurs as close in time to the misbehavior as possible, it is not as helpful in influencing future behavior.

Principals should not be "gunnysack" discipliners, storing observations of prior misbehavior until a performance review when he or she can "dump everything on the table."

When principals intervene early, they can deal with one behavior at a time and the teacher receiving the discipline is not overwhelmed. Performance review is actually an ongoing process, not something you do only once a year.

The second factor that makes the One Minute Reprimand effective is that the teacher's worth or value as a person is never attacked. Since personal worth is not "up for grabs," the teacher does not need to be defensive.

A One Minute Principal reprimands behavior only. Thus, your feedback and the teacher's reaction to it is about a specific behavior, not about the teacher's feelings of self-worth.

Does It Take Only One Minute?

If you decide to become a One Minute Principal, you should realize that it doesn't always take just one minute to do all the things you need to do as a school manager. Nonetheless, being an effective school manager is not as complicated as people would have you believe, and it doesn't take as long as you probably think. In essence, the phrase "One Minute Manager" should remind principals that "the best minute you spend is the one you invest in people."

5. Students: Promoting Expectations for Learning

Because individualization in a smaller school is easier to carry out, students have greater opportunity to discover their individual potential. This belief is similar to Huling's statement (p. 197) that students in small high schools exhibit greater responsibility for self-direction and often have greater confidence and self-esteem.

Zanella (p. 203) advises the small school principal to take positive steps to foster the growth of student leadership opportunities and to provide student involvement in school policies. He urges the faculty of small schools to nurture student leadership in the classroom and work with students to implement programs.

The importance of identifying unmotivated students and developing strategies to assist them is pointed out by Hutslar, Litcher, and Knight (p. 206). They advocate a student motivation study and use teacher perceptions of student motivation to increase student learning readiness.

At first glance, a smaller school principal might appear to have difficulty implementing a program similar to that described by Braukmann, Cochran, and Pankove (p. 210), since the principal in a small school usually has responsibility for all the job descriptions represented on the Advisory Council that is described. The suggested model might well be adapted to a PAC with appropriate representation from faculty and community.

Lordon's article (p. 213) describes the goal of learning as the focus of school life. Clear and explicit policies, schedules, communication with students, and strong staff commitment are related to student expectations in this approach to an effective school climate.

Wright (p. 216) and Hoch and Olszowy (p. 222) address the issue of drugs in small schools. A recent survey found higher use of drugs and alcohol among rural high school students than among their urban counterparts. Wright advocates student involvement and includes students in decision making to ameliorate the worst situations. Hoch and Olszowy advocate planning ahead for drug related situations to prepare for appropriate, fair, and clear action.

The great reservoir of student power, initiative, and productivity recognized by Wright is a daily challenge for every principal, especially the principal in a small school. It is truly amazing what students can do, given motivation, opportunity, and high expectations.

How School Size Affects Student Participation, Alienation

Leslie Huling

HIGH SCHOOL SIZE is an issue that has received a great deal of attention from educators during the past decade. Until recently the belief seems to have been that the best high schools, like the best offensive tackles, are big; in fact, the bigger the better.

Some districts, because of their sparse population and their remoteness from other towns or cities, have had no choice in regard to the size of their high school. On the other hand, it is highly unlikely that any data generated in regard to high school size will be so significant as to convince districts with large high schools to tear down their buildings and start over.

However, as educators and school board members plan the future growth and development of their school districts, it will be important for them to consider the effect of high school size on the educational experience of students. The question of high school size should also be considered by these decision makers as they face the issues of consolidation and desegregation.

Student alienation is difficult to measure, and it is impossible to determine the exact effects of alienation. Even so, few educators will argue the question that alienation does in fact have a negative effect on academic achievement and attendance, as well as the social and psychological well-being of students. Almost by their very definitions, there exists a negative correlation between "student participation" and "student alienation." In other words, the higher one is, the lower the other will be. One could expect a highly active student to have a low degree of alienation, and by the same line of reasoning, a highly alienated student is not likely to be very active in cocurricular activities.

Undoubtedly, there are many other factors that affect student alienation besides participation in cocurricular activities. Further, elements other than school size affect student participation in cocurricular activities. However, the research that has been conducted and the literature that has been published on these subjects indicate that, all other factors being equal, high school size is related to student participation in cocurricular activities and student alienation.

Leslie Huling is a graduate student in secondary education at Texas Tech University, Lubbock.

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Effects of School Size On Student Participation

Researchers have addressed the effects of high school size on student participation in cocurricular activities, and have consistently found that students in small schools tend to become more actively involved in co-curricular activities than students in large schools. In addition, the studies have indicated that students in small schools assume more positions of responsibility than do their counterparts in large schools. Studies have shown one of the most recognized advantages of the small school to be the high degree of student participation in cocurricular activities.

Researcher E. J. Kleinert (1969) summarizes his study by writing, "My findings indicate decreased student involvement in activities as high schools grow larger." In his study, Kleinert selected by random sample 63 high schools in southern Michigan with enrollments ranging from 87 to 3,063. He had equal representation of schools classified as small (0-599 students), medium (600-1,499 students), and large (1,500 students or more).

He concluded, "The relationship between the proportion of individual students who participate in school activities and the size of the high school was found to be high and inverse for schools with enrollments of more than 600." He noted that in the larger schools studied, an average of only 32 students per hundred participated in one or more activity; whereas 76 per hundred did in the medium-size schools.

Roger Barker and Paul Gump (1964) discuss school size and students' experiences in cocurricular activities in their book *Big School, Small School.* By studying one large high school and four small high schools in northeastern Kansas, they made four observations which have been summarized by Allan W. Wicker (1969). These findings include:

- In terms of availability of extracurricular activities, small schools are not significantly different from large schools.
- In small schools, students are more likely to be involved in a wide range of activities. Also, students in small schools have more positions of responsibility than students in large schools.
- Students in small schools seem to derive more personal satisfaction from participating in extracurricular activities than do students in large schools.
- Students in small schools receive more encouragement to participate in extracurricular activities than do students in large schools.

Wicker comments on the findings of Barker and Gump, "While many activities occur in large schools, there are also many students to whom the activities are available. The average large school student, while he may be welcomed in most activities, generally is not needed in

the sense that the success of the activity hinges upon his participation. By contrast, in small schools people are generally less expendable."

Wicker conducted studies of his own in 1968 and 1969 which confirmed the findings of Barker and Gump. In related research, Leonard L. Baird (1969) studies a national sample of more than 21,000 high school students who participated in the American College Testing Program.

He found small school students had more achievement in leadership, music, speech and drama, and writing while there was no significant effect of school size in art or science. In schools having fewer than 25 students in the graduating class, Baird found only 12 percent had held no leadership positions. In schools of 400 or more per class, 27 percent did not have any leadership achievement.

Ronald G. Downey's research findings (1978) are similar to those of Baird. Downey found that while there was no significant difference in the college academic performance of students from large and small high schools, students from small schools tended to be more involved in a variety of activities while in high school. He explains these differences as being the result of greater opportunity and a need for individual participation in smaller social (ecological) systems.

While most studies related to high school size and student participation in cocurricular activities focus on students in general, Edwin P. Willems (1967) looked at the problem in relation to "marginal" students, or those students who are poorly suited for school life. He found that in small schools, where there were relatively few students available for activities, these marginal students were similar to their regular schoolmates in the sense of obligation they felt toward participating in school activities. In the large school, the marginal students were a group apart and reported little, if any, sense of obligation. In regard to these findings, Willems writes, "It would appear that the small school marginal students were not experientially and behaviorally marginal, while their large school counterparts were a group of relative outsiders."

Researchers who have concentrated only on the small school have found one of the primary advantages of a small high school to be the high degree of student participation in cocurricular activities. In a 1979 preliminary proposal for a Small Secondary School Improvement Project, Weldon Beckner listed the various purported strengths of small schools. One item included in this list reads, "A small school provides greater opportunity for each student to participate in the total school activity program. Each student is needed in the program; hence the activity program becomes a learning activity, rather than merely a stage for the stellar performances of a few."

In a 1973 study of small west Texas secondary schools conducted by

Shamus Mehaffie, respondents were asked to indicate their opinion as to the best feature of small schools. One of the five most popular responses to this item was "Students have opportunity for wide participation."

Effects of School Size on Student Alienation

Kenneth F. Palmer (1978) addresses the issue of student alienation and high school size by noting, "We cannot even assess the impact of alienation, depersonalization, and dehumanization on students caught up in the machinery of a large educational bureaucracy; however, intuitively we know that it is simply impossible for each student in a large school to be given an opportunity to be an important part of the institution." Kleinert (1969) expresses a feeling similar to Palmer's. He writes, "The very large high school, with its institutional character and impersonal masses, is less likely than the small school to help the average individual student with problems of personal identification. That is, it fails to provide him with opportunities to take initiative, to enjoy recognition, to exercise leadership—in short, to gain honor and glory."

As has been pointed out previously, student alienation is difficult to measure precisely; however, numerous factors serve as indicators of the presence or lack of alienation. Some of the indicators include personal relationships, self-confidence, and self-esteem. In Mehaffie's study (1973), the most common response to the item asking respondents to indicate their opinion as to the best feature of small schools was "close personal relationships." An Educational Research Services research brief (1974) points out that small schools tend to have better pupil-staff relationships than large schools and better rapport between student and teacher, between student and student, and between student and administrator.

A study committee on small schools focused indirectly on student alienation in its 1974 report, which quotes Schoenholtz (1972), "The high school years are a time when young people are learning a great deal about themselves and their relationship with others. Because of greater involvement in school life, students in small schools often have greater confidence and self-esteem." Turner and Thrasher (1970) found that students in small high schools exhibit greater responsibility for self-direction than do those in large schools. Taken collectively, these studies indicate that the student from the small school is likely to have a greater opportunity to be involved than his or her counterpart in the large school and to benefit from this participation by way of improved mental and social skills.

Generalizations and Conclusions

Several generalizations concerning the relationship of high school size to student participation in cocurricular activities and student aliena-

tion can be made from the research included in this article. These generalizations are:

- Students in small schools become involved in a greater number and variety of activities than students in large schools.
- Students in small schools assume a greater number of positions of responsibility than students in large schools.
- Students in small schools are less alienated than students in large schools.
- Student participation in cocurricular activities and student alienation are negatively correlated.

In conclusion, it is again important to point out that there are many factors which affect student alienation in addition to school size and student participation in cocurricular activities. It is also important to note that the cocurricular activity program is influenced by many elements other than high school size. Also, not all school districts are in a position to make a choice about what size their schools will be. However, when educators and school board members are faced with a decision related to high school size, the factors of student participation in cocurricular activities and student alienation should be considered along with those of academics, cost, and convenience.

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Student Leadership: A Vanishing School Resource

Richard Zanella

Today's students are turning their attention, and talents, in many directions. Unfortunately, this author feels, too few are developing the leadership skills they will need in future life. Some steps designed to encourage student leadership activities are outlined here.

STUDENT LEADERSHIP IS an essential part of the secondary school environment. Student leadership also is quickly slipping into oblivion. Despite the best efforts of principals and teachers everywhere, students today are shunning leadership and its inherent responsibilities. Instead they seem to gravitate toward recreational pleasure, extracurricular activities, staunch do-nothingness, or academic excellence for their personal benefit.

Our complex ever-changing society demands more and more from its members. People today are compelled to make more decisions, and our schools must try to meet this challenge by adequately preparing students to enter society. Leadership is necessary in all aspects of living, and in the past our schools have nurtured more than enough qualified individuals who assumed leadership and performed admirably. The last decade has demonstrated that more capable leaders are needed now more than ever before in our history. Unfortunately, there is strong evidence today that this need is not being understood or satisfied by our educational institutions.

The direct effect of this lack of student leadership is a large void which exists every time a student-centered activity,

Richard Zanella is principal, Mountain Lakes (N.J.) High School.

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program, or idea is initiated by someone above the students in the educational hierarchy. No matter how good the idea, program, or activity, student response to take a leading role in its planning, implementation, or dissemination is weak or nonexistent. This problem kills the best efforts of educational administrators and teachers regardless of their zeal and energy.

A similar problem is the lack of student-initiated ideas, programs, and activities. Many students shy away from initiating them because they do not want to assume leadership. A variety of reasons cause students to avoid leadership responsibilities, including peer pressure against aspiring student leaders, the numerous popular recreational activities which need no student leadership, and the decreasing leadership demands placed on students by our schools and society in general.

The indirect effects of diminishing student leadership are long-lasting and will plague our society for years to come. If our schools do not serve as a staging and developmental area for leadership qualities, the future will be served by less qualified and poorly prepared individuals who take longer to assume leadership and who cannot cope well with societal problems.

What Can Be Done?

What can be done to offset this decline in one of our vital school resources? Parents, educators, students, and communities should all work together to foster an increase in student leadership. Community and home activities which encourage youth to assume leadership in a variety of ways should be increased since they have a beneficial carryover effect into our schools. People outside of school should be urged to allow youngsters of all ages to build and polish leadership traits in diverse situations. Encouragement must be obvious and plentiful, and help must be provided when necessary.

The students' main responsibility is participation. They must take an active part in activities and programs including leadership roles when the situations warrant it. It will be a learning process whether it occurs in school, at home, or elsewhere. There will be student failures and frustrations, but the benefits will be great. Students will realize this point quickly, which should spur their further involvement.

School administrators can take a number of positive steps to help foster the growth of student leadership opportunities in our schools. They include:

- Stress the importance and necessity of student leadership in all aspects of education.
- Permit students to take an active role in important school matters such as planning school policies.

- Listen to student suggestions with an open mind and work with them to implement positive programs which they have initiated.
- Establish a program whereby students can learn to make decisions based on sound judgment and logical thinking.
- Explain thoroughly to the student how and why vital administrative decisions are made. Be honest and straightforward, even if a decision is unpopular with students.
- Urge the faculty to seek and nurture student leadership in the classroom.
- Help coordinate faculty/student projects ensuring that the students' roles are of primary importance and contain leadership possibilities.
- Demand more from the students in a variety of areas to force them to make decisions and assume leadership roles.
- Inform the public, especially parents, of student leadership which has benefited the school and/or community, and continue public relations work to keep students in the news for their positive achievements.
- Be flexible and tolerant, realizing that student leaders will make mistakes and can disrupt the school program at times.

The suggestions listed above will involve school administrators in more work and will require much valuable time. An administrator unable or unwilling to make a firm commitment to improving student leadership should not try to implement the aforementioned suggestions. However, an administrator willing to give full support, time, and energy to such a project should reap the rewards of an active, progressive student body containing an appropriate number of strong student leaders. Once more students begin to assume leadership and accept its responsibilities, an atmosphere of self-perpetuation usually occurs which continues to develop student leaders.

Conclusion

There are strong, hard-working student leaders in our schools today, but they are not numerous. School officials must continue to support these individuals while working to enlarge their cadre. The dearth of student leaders today is a serious problem plaguing educational institutions everywhere. It is the responsibility of school administrators to realize that the situation exists and to work toward solving the problem.

What Motivates Students To Learn: Identifying the Key Factors

Student achievement is clearly linked to motivation. These writers urge educators to identify motivating factors and to develop strategies to help underachievers increase their learning readiness.

By Sally Hutslar, John H. Litcher, and J. Pat Knight

THE LACK OF motivation among young people is a serious problem for teachers, principals, and society, but before this problem can be remedied, we must have a better understanding of the factors that influence student motivation.

That was the goal of several college teachers and high school faculty members who combined efforts in a project to identify the key motivational factors governing performance in school.

First, the high school and college teachers identified the factors that constitute motivated behavior in students and examined ways in which teachers interpret these factors when they assess the level of student motivation. With this information, they developed a teacher rating scale of student motivation.

The second phase of the project comprised a similar group effort to identify and use a standardized instrument to measure student self-motivation.

The instrument, the Self-Motivation Inventory (SMI) (Dishman, Ickes, and Morgan, 1980) was administered to 71 randomly selected students from a junior class of 700. In addition to the SMI, each of the students completed a general information sheet, indicating plans after graduation and the relevancy of their school experiences in achieving future personal goals.

Because the results of the Self-Motivation Inventory, teacher-rating

Sally Hutslar is assistant professor of physical education and John H. Litcher is director of teacher education, both at Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, N.C. J. Pat Knight is director of field experiences, College of Learning and Human Development, Appalachian State University, Boone, N.C.

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scale, and the student questionnaire did not reveal the answers to some important questions about student motivation, a second questionnaire was given to 24 of the students. The questionnaire contained items regarding students' attitudes toward coursework, attitudes toward teachers and administrators, perceptions of their parents' attitudes toward the importance of school, students' working hours per week, and plans following graduation. Using the questionnaire, interviewers recorded answers and comments made by the students as the interview progressed.

Teacher Ratings and Student Motivation Scores

The analysis of the teacher-rating scale revealed three distinct factors utilized by teachers when making judgments about student motivation. The factors were: social behavior/responsibility, readiness to learn, and ability to learn.

The social behavior/responsibility factor was characterized by the following traits:

- Mature/immature
- Honest/dishonest
- Well behaved/misbehaved
- Enjoyable/unenjoyable
- Attentive/unattentive
- Prepared/unprepared.

The readiness-to-learn factor was characterized by traits such as:

- Inquisitive/lacks curiosity
- Sad/happy
- Dull/alert
- Active/passive.

The ability factor was characterized by traits such as:

- Intelligent/unintelligent
- Competent/incompetent
- Independent/dependent
- Confident/easily intimidated.

Scores for the SMI and teacher rating scores were then compared to determine whether the teacher's ratings of the students were similar to the students' SMI scores. Students who had SMI scores of 164 or above (one standard deviation above the mean) were categorized as having a high SMI score. Students who had SMI scores of 126 or below (one standard deviation below the mean) were categorized as having a low SMI score.

The analysis revealed that students who had high SMI scores were rated significantly higher by their teachers than students who had low SMI scores on all three factors of the teacher rating scale: social behavior/responsibility, readiness to learn, and ability to learn.

High SMI students were also perceived by the teachers as having a higher general level of motivation toward school than low SMI students.

Questionnaire Analysis

Two separate analyses were conducted on the data obtained from the student questionnaire, which included both structured questions and open-ended questions.

The structured questions were analyzed statistically to determine any differences between the high and low motivated students; all other items were analyzed subjectively. Of the 20 items analyzed, only two variables were found to be significant.

First, students with high SMI scores were found to have significantly higher class rank. Second, the educational level of the mothers of high SMI students was significantly greater than the

educational level of the mothers of low SMI students.

Seventy-five percent of the students questioned planned to continue schooling after graduation; 70 percent of that group planned to attend a four-year college. The students were generally involved in both school and non-school activities; more than two-thirds of the students indicated involvement in school activities, while nearly three-fourths were involved in organized non-school activities.

The students reported watching an average of 17.2 hours of television per week, listening to 31.4 hours per week of music, and reading non-school material for 6.2 hours per week. Two-thirds of the students indicated some use of alcohol and/or drugs.

Of particular interest was the questionnaire item that assessed a student's feeling toward coursework. In answer to the question: "Do you feel your coursework in high school is important for what you want to do after high school?" more than three-fourths of the students responded positively.

Certain school subjects, including English, math, typing, and shorthand, were singled out as being important to success after high school. A number of students indicated that the coursework had only recently taken on a meaning of importance.

Another question of particular interest assessed student attitudes toward grades. In response to the question: "How do you feel about your grades?" 75 percent of the students responded that they felt they could do better in their coursework.

The students who indicated that they were not satisfied with their grades offered explanations for why their grades were not satisfactory: failure to study, a tendency to take study less seriously in the high school years, too many other activities, and studying only to the point that parents seemed satisfied with their efforts. The majority believed that they did better in school prior to the senior year.

When asked if they had ever had trouble with grades, more than one-half indicated that their troubles began in high school. Interestingly, those who indicated they had had trouble or were having trouble with grades were not necessarily the students with the lowest grade point average.

Conclusions

The study does not provide strategies for improving motivation and learning; rather, it represents the initial steps taken by a group of educators who share a desire to improve student motivation and learning.

With that purpose in mind, the study offers the following conclusions:

1. The Self-Motivation Inventory is useful as an indicator of a student's motivation in his or her coursework and may prove useful as a screening device in identifying low motivation students. This inventory has since been given to more than 700 entering juniors and was found to be a reliable predictor of self-motivation.
2. Teacher's perceptions of student motivation in school seem to be derived from three general categories of behavior: social behavior and responsibility, readiness to learn, and ability to learn.
3. Teacher ratings of students' motivational levels deserve credit for

their accuracy. That is, students who scored high on the Self-Motivation Inventory were rated high by their teachers on social behavior and responsibility, readiness to learn, and ability to learn.

4. Whether they scored high or low on the Self-Motivation Inventory, significant differences for students were found only in regard to class rank and the mother's level of education. Differences in a mother's level of education may indicate that mothers are more influential than fathers in their effect on a child's attitude toward achievement in school.
5. Students were generally positive about attending school. Though the most positive concept about school was being with friends, students thought their courses were of some value and were generally relevant to their future plans.
6. Students' numerous outside interests (friends, work, school, and non-school activities) have preference over preparation for their school coursework. Also, students spend many more hours watching television, listening to the radio, and reading non-school material than they spend in school or in preparation for their school coursework.

In summary, teachers seem to have the ability to accurately assess the motivational level of their students. Since the student's motivation was found to be positively related to achievement (class rank), it would seem appropriate for schools to identify low motivation students and to develop strategies to help those students in the areas of behavior, responsibility, and readiness and ability to learn.

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Delivering Support Services in a Small High School: A Model That Works

A team approach to intervention in student problems works well for this small school.

By William T. Braukmann, David W. Cochran, and Ethel Pankove

Administrators of small high schools must deal with problems similar to those encountered in large high schools, but with fewer support services. The task of generating creative solutions for dealing with troubled or alienated adolescents in small high schools usually rests in the hands of a single administrator, the vice principal.

In New Jersey, the principal typically oversees the total operation of the school and is concerned with the development of budget, community relations, staff supervision, and instructional leadership. The vice principal is concerned with the daily functioning of the school and serves as disciplinarian. The guidance counselors are generally support personnel for all students, while the child study team (psychologist, social worker, learning consultant) is a resource for students with severe problems.

This differentiation of function has limited usefulness when dealing with wide-ranging teenage problems. While such a model does provide for the resolution of some problems, it is hampered by overlapping responsibilities of the vice principal, guidance counselors, and child study team, and it is sometimes difficult to pinpoint who has primary responsibility.

Several years ago, administrators at Montgomery High School, Skillman, N.J., decided to look at a different

William T. Braukmann is principal and David W. Cochran is vice-principal, Montgomery High School, Skillman, N.J. Ethel Pankove is school psychologist, Montgomery Township Schools.

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model of resolving discipline problems in their 7-12 high school of 800 students. A review of the traditional model revealed that there were limitations in the communication network and concerns about areas of responsibility among all support staff.

The vice principal felt that some problems were inappropriately referred to him. Guidance counselors felt that other staff members had not fully exercised their options before referring a student to the guidance office. The child study team felt that some problems referred for comprehensive evaluation could have been handled in a simpler manner. There was an obvious need to consolidate resources, an idea that gave birth to the Vice Principal's Advisory Council (VPAC).

The VPAC consists of the vice principal, a school psychologist, a social worker, guidance counselors, a school nurse, and a learning disabilities teacher/consultant. The Council meets once each week for one hour, or on demand, if necessary, to deal with unusual situations.

Working together on common problems has resulted in a strong bond among all members of the group. That bond of trust and commitment has become its greatest source of strength. The people who have profited most from this new-found relationship are the students who need help.

The VPAC operates with simple guidelines: Any member or any teacher may refer a student for any need. VPAC members agree, however, that problems are best resolved at the lowest level. Hence, problems of a routine nature are not brought to the group.

Typical problems brought to the group include chronic absenteeism, class cutting, family problems, alcohol/drug abuse, and disruptive/unacceptable behavior. The group collects data on the student, attempts to diagnose the nature of the problem, and develops an intervention strategy. These strategies are as creative and varied as the support group is diverse. The intervention is usually carried out by one or two members of the group, or involves referral for evaluation to the child study team or community agency. Inherent in almost any recommendation is the involvement of parents, for the group feels strongly that the parent is often a critical agent in the resolution of the problem.

Inherent in almost any recommendation is the involvement of parents, for the group feels strongly that the parent is often a critical agent in the resolution of the problem.

The VPAC also deals with general school problems such as vandalism, general attendance, and problems in such areas as the cafeteria or gym.

While the Montgomery High School VPAC has enjoyed a great deal of success in using the team approach to intervention, it has not been without failure. Youngsters have left school before graduation, despite its best efforts. Others have spurned assistance and have compounded their problems. However, the strong supportive and communications network derived from the VPAC has had a tremendous influence in keeping many students in school and helping them deal realistically with their problems.

The time commitment to the VPAC is significant, but it is no greater than the time spent in separate meetings which members would have had otherwise. Some of the benefits that Montgomery High School has noted are:

- Initiating preventive measures, thereby substantially reducing the number of students who find themselves in serious difficulty.
- Getting help quickly and efficiently for those youngsters who need it.
- Reducing the frustration level of all personnel involved in discipline.
- Having a mechanism in place that is readily available to deal with difficult problems in a systematic and organized fashion.
- Improving the quality of decisions being made about students.
- Providing a bridge of understanding between the Council and other members of the staff.
- Increasing trust among students, parents, faculty members, and support staff.
- Encouraging colleagues to spend more time dealing with teenage problems.
- Significantly improving communication among administrators, staff, students, and parents.
- Maintaining the momentum for an intervention; if one council member is unsuccessful, another member may become involved.
- Orienting new support staff members more easily to the philosophy of the school.

The VPAC has had a significant impact in the five years that it has been in operation. While it has evolved in a small junior/senior high school, the same principles of team effort can be applied to organizations of any size.

From our experience, we would encourage those embarking on a team approach to problem resolution to consider the following:

1. Clearly define the purpose of the group.
2. Clearly define which types of problems the group can address.
3. Establish a camaraderie within the group. You will spend quite a period of time together.
4. Set an agenda at the outset of each meeting and try to keep within it.
5. Establish a code of confidentiality. Members will be privy to a great deal of information which cannot be shared with others.
6. Keep confidential minutes. These should be written so as not to reveal sensitive information. They should generally contain only the name of the student, the intervention, and who will implement it.
7. Be sure to give adequate publicity to the group among other professionals in the school. Depending on how you communicate with the other staff members, the council may be perceived as a support group or an elitist society.
8. Keep the principal apprised of what the group is doing. He should receive the minutes and be invited to meetings that pertain to his area of responsibility.
9. Periodically evaluate the work of the group and make appropriate changes.
10. Set a reasonable time limit for the meetings and try to hold to it. Some problems could consume an hour by themselves. As the group evolves, it will become more efficient at developing appropriate interventions.

A VPAC may not solve all your school problems, but it will help you develop a unified system for addressing them. Montgomery High School personnel are pleased with what the VPAC has done for their school and strongly recommend it to others for consideration.

Establishing a Climate for School Discipline: The Total Perspective

John F. Lordon

In order to establish a climate for effective school discipline, administrators must examine discipline from a total school perspective, according to this writer, who suggests educators examine the key issues presented here.

What can principals do to establish the kind of school climate necessary to ensure that learning is the focus of school life? They must begin by examining this issue from the total school perspective by addressing the following key questions.

How committed is the staff to discipline outside the classroom?

Discipline in a school is affected as much by what goes on outside the classroom as it is by what happens in the classroom. Duties that many teachers regard as peripheral (and a nuisance) are crucial to establishing good control and order.

The entire school staff must be committed to doing the best possible job of student supervision.

By supervision of students we generally mean scrutiny and jurisdiction over students during non-instructional periods of the school day; during periods when students are approaching and leaving the school premises; during the loading and unloading of school buses; during cocurricular activities; during recesses and at other times when

John F. Lordon is school supervisor for School District 10, Chatham, New Brunswick, Canada.

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students are on school grounds. Supervision, if taken seriously, can help establish order and discipline.

Are school policies clear to students?

Expectations must be clearly established and communicated to students. Rules, policies, and procedures must be written down and explained carefully. They should also be consistent. Behavior expected of students in corridors, at assemblies, on school grounds, and at cocurricular events should be virtually the same as that expected in the classroom.

Are detrimental attitudes avoided?

Certain attitudes are anathema to good supervision. Principals must learn to recognize and deal with these syndromes by accentuating their positive corollaries and by taking disciplinary action when necessary.

- The Tardiness Syndrome

Some teachers are always late for assigned duties. The consequences of tardiness are obvious to any principal or teacher who has arrived at a disorderly scene too late to avoid a volatile situation.

Positive corollary: Make every attempt to be punctual. The first five minutes of any supervision period are crucial.

- The "He's not *my* student" Syndrome

Some teachers, especially in large schools, consistently ignore misbehavior of students whom they do not teach, arguing that student behavior is the responsibility of the people who teach them.

Positive corollary: Teachers should consistently deal with any breach of discipline they encounter, anywhere in the school, whether or not the student involved is one they teach.

- The "I'll keep a low profile" Syndrome.

Some teachers "go through the motions" when involved in supervisory duties. They are present in body, but not in spirit. They take up a station and do not budge from it.

Positive corollary: Teachers on supervision should be active—circulating, monitoring, and controlling.

- The "It's none of my business" Syndrome

Yet another type of teacher subtly tells the pupils, "I'll stick to my business, you stick to yours. Don't cross me and I won't cross you." This teacher, by trying to become an ally of the students, is seriously undermining the total staff effort.

Positive corollary: Staff members must be cooperative and mutually supportive. Everyone must make the maximum effort.

Is discipline consistent?

Inconsistency in policies and approaches to dealing with discipline problems, in expectations by teachers from one room to another, in interpretation of rules and policies, and in types of punishment used, is the most serious detriment to a good school discipline system. Teachers and principals must

strive for consistency in all their dealings with students.

Each teacher must be consistent in his or her reaction to certain types of behavior; one type of behavior cannot be accepted today and rejected tomorrow. On a larger scale, what is unacceptable behavior in one classroom should not be acceptable in another. Rules should be consistently interpreted and sanctions should be consistently applied.

Teachers must also strive for consistency in their approach to supervision. If Teacher A is a conscientious supervisor on Monday, while on Tuesday Teacher B shrugs off his supervisory duties, an effective discipline program is weakened.

Again, it comes down to a question of expectations. If the students know what the school expects from them—and what to expect if they do not conform—most of them will fall into line.

Are planning and supervision policies established?

A major responsibility of the principal is to develop clear and explicit supervision policies and schedules to cover every aspect of the day's operations, from students' arrival to their departure.

To provide adequately for the supervisory needs of the school, the principal will have to ask and answer many questions such as:

- What are the procedures for loading and unloading buses?
- What kind of supervision is required in the pre-class periods in the morning?
- What kind of provision is made for recess?
- What is the supervision policy for the noon hour?
- Are all "problem areas" adequately supervised?
- Are duties fairly and evenly distributed?
- Do teachers clearly understand their duties and responsibilities?
- Have students been properly briefed and trained?
- Are all policies and schedules written down and distributed?

The list is endless, but these questions should serve as representatives of the kinds of careful planning for supervision that the principal must do.

Conclusion

The problem of school discipline is one which concerns every principal and teacher. Everything good that happens in a school follows from good order, smooth operation, clear procedures, and careful scrutiny of the total school operation.

If the individual teachers are to have the best chance to be successful in the classroom they must be part of a school staff which, in concert with a wise principal, is committed to total school pupil management.

A Participatory Model

Students Can Be Effective Change Agents

Johnny Wright

The following article explains a student participatory model developed and implemented by the author in his high school to combat a drug problem. He believes the model can help other administrators who face difficult-to-solve school problems.

STUDENTS TRADITIONALLY have had little to do with actual "changes" taking place in the schools, even though the potential for students effectuating productive change has always existed. By utilizing students in the decision-making process, many schools that are overwhelmed with problems can find new direction and life. Such decision-making situations could range from planning the lunch menu to solving very complex problems. Strategies can be proposed, developed, and implemented with the process providing an information base and rationale for the solution of other student-related problems.

One situation where a model for student participation in the decision-making process was implemented occurred at Pike County High School, Brundidge, Ala. The model was designed specifically to eliminate drug abuse in the school using student participation and peer pressure to effect the desired change. It is not the model, though, that is important. The essential factor in the scheme is student involvement. The students at Pike County High were given the chance to attack a very tough problem, fight the battle on their own terms by themselves, and to win the war.

Johnny Wright is principal of Pike County High School, Brundidge, Ala.

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The problem of drug abuse is not unique to any school. Students in secondary schools have been involved in drug abuse for years. Administrators have tried numerous strategies to cope with such problems. The results: Students become more secretive in their actions and elimination of the problem becomes administratively almost impossible.

A Case Study

Pike County High School had recognized a marijuana problem for several years. To admit otherwise would have been naive, although the problem was microscopic when compared with many other schools. Attempts to "handle" the problem administratively were by and large unsuccessful. Pleading, coercion, searching, and threatening were to no avail.

According to Chesler and Lohman, prominent authorities on conflict and crisis management, students are in a much better position than principals and teachers to transform schools in desirable ways.[1] Chesler and Lohman's position initiated thoughts of student involvement to help eliminate drug abuse at Pike County.

To give life to the idea of utilizing student peer pressure and to ascertain the students' perception of the problem as well as a need for a solution, a meeting with the student council was held. In the course of the meeting, it was acknowledged by the students that there was a problem and that there was a need to rectify the situation. This step was vital, because the affected population recognized the need. It is not enough for just the school power structure—i.e., principals and teachers—to be aware of a problem affecting students. Students must be aware.

Student cognizance, however, does not effect solution. Students can be aware of a problem or adverse situation, but often do not have the power to make their ideas or plans materialize into a desirable solution or change. Chesler and Lohman recognized this situation and addressed themselves to student advocacy in effecting organizational change.[2]

The underlying assumptions which guided the thinking of Chesler and Lohman relative to student advocacy were relevant to the situation existing in our school although their model, called the power-conflict model, emerged out of their work with secondary schools facing *severe* conflict and crisis, not the case at Pike County. Their three assumptions are:

1. Schools as social organizations are strain-and-conflict-producing

1. Mark A. Chesler and John E. Lohman, "Changing Schools Through Student Advocacy", in *Organization and Development in Schools*, (ed. Richard A. Schmuck and Mathew B. Miles (Palo Alto, Calif.: National Press Book, 1971), p. 184.
2. *Ibid*, p. 185.

systems; that is, legitimate but competing and sometimes incompatible interests are endemic in the current structure of the school organization.

2. Members of a school district—students, teachers, and administrators—occupy roles and structures and operate with professional and organizational norms and procedures, which keep them separate, and work against formal interaction and the development of cross-cutting ties of common interest, values, and feelings.
3. All of the legitimate power, authority, and expertise in schools (and much of the informal power) presently resides entirely in the hands of boards, administrators, and some teachers in the schools.[3]

The situation at Pike County High School corresponded to the three assumptions. Students, teachers, and administrators seemed to have varied interests and motivations that were often diametrically opposed. For example, administrators assumed all decision making and discretionary functions while teachers were to teach and supervise students. In like manner, students were to learn, behave themselves, and to stay in their "place". Principals were interested in a smoothly running organization; teachers were interested in imparting knowledge; and students were interested in very little. There was a need for aligning these varied interests in the same direction as well as attempting strategies to soften the strict roles existing among the three groups.

Recognition of this fact enabled facilitation of numerous activites involving students, faculty, and administration in committee settings where each member had equal rank and power. Prom planning, policy review and revision, intramural planning, curriculum, and senior day committees are a few examples of committees which functioned in this manner. In each, decisions were reached through consensus. Channels of communication opened and meaningful interaction resulted.

Students became involved with decision-making procedures and began to realize that they were part of the "power-structure" of the school. Of course, if one group obtains more power, the original power base has less. In this situation, the additional power given to the students is being used wisely and productively; consequently no one has lost.

The original idea was to enlist the help of the students in solving the drug abuse problem. It was necessary, therefore, to give students the requisite power, and most important, to make them cognizant of the fact that they had it. The open communication and interaction between faculty and students ensured an atmosphere conducive to constructive change.

3. *Ibid.* p. 186.

After a needs assessment was made, the student council suggested an executive committee composed of the student council president, adviser, and the principal select a coordinating committee of 15 members from the student council. The purpose of this group was to coordinate all activities relative to drug use and abuse, and to review and evaluate subsequent programs. Subcommittees were drawn from this group for program implementation. The students from the coordinating committee were given the "green light" to constructively handle the drug abuse problem.

The relevancy of the action taken should be obvious. The students had been aware of the drug problem for a long time and were now given an almost free hand to cope with it. The new power structure gave them the confidence and assurance that they could do the job. Forthcoming changes and actions would be made *by students* and *for students*.

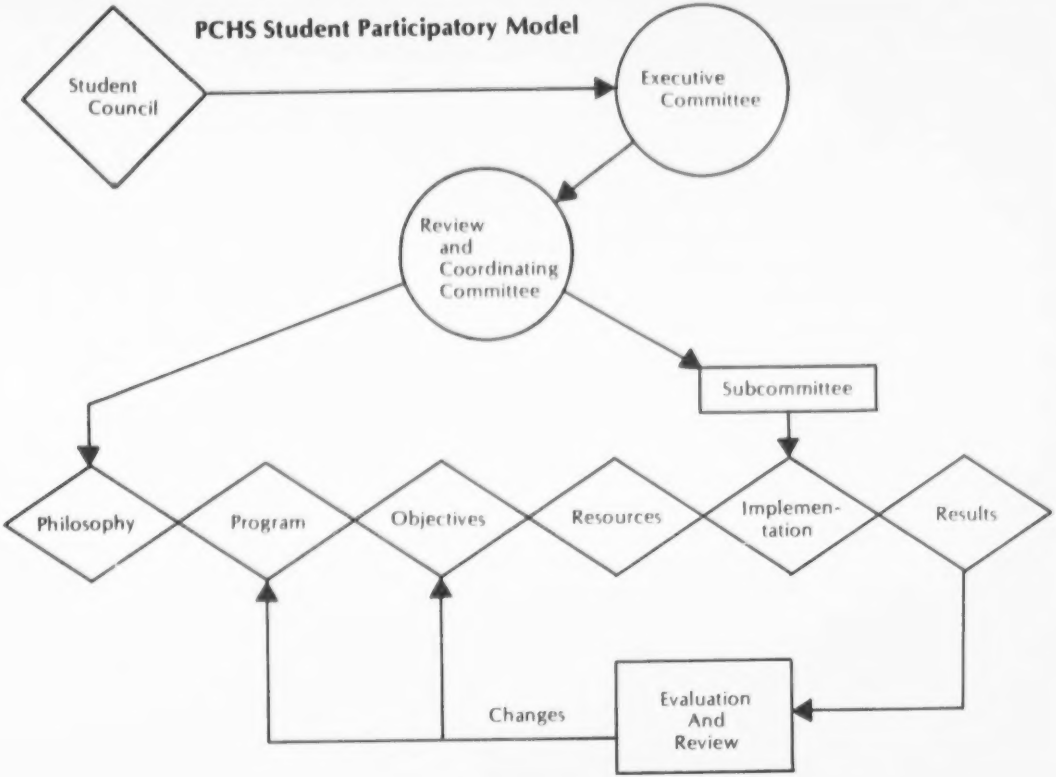
Various programs were developed to facilitate immediate and long-range change in the school drug culture. A subcommittee was formed to secure a "rap-room" to provide a conducive atmosphere for students to talk over problems on a one-to-one basis with their peers. Another subcommittee was formed to secure information about alternatives to drug use and abuse and to disseminate information to the student body. A final and very important subcommittee was formed to contact known drug users on campus and to persuade them to leave their drugs at home. This student group was successful because of their sincerity, knowledge of their fellow students, and because of the environment existing in the local community and school.

How the Model Works

To provide a better understanding of how each subcommittee functions the "pressure" group will be taken through the conceptual model.

The *specific objective* was to contact students who were generally considered campus drug users. Only peer pressure was applied and no one revealed to the principal or even to other members of the committee the identities of persons contacted. The beauty of the scheme was in the directness of the approach. The one-to-one encounter which hits at the *most* manipulatable factor (the drug itself) of the drug scene provides a face-saving mechanism for the user. He is not threatened—only his practice. He is not judged for drug use—only his choice of places to use drugs. The approach might be the same for a student smoking dope on campus or one bringing a six-pack of beer to school.

In the personalized strategy mentioned, the *resources* used were of an idiographic or personal nature. Each person drew from himself the initiative, fortitude, and common sense necessary to apply the appro-


PCHS Student Participatory Model
Student Council
Executive Committee
Review and Coordinating Committee
Subcommittee
Philosophy
Program
Objectives
Resources
Implemen-tation
Results
Changes
Evaluation And Review

priate peer pressure to effect the desired outcome; i.e., persuading students to leave their drugs at home. *Program implementation* involving the one-to-one encounter yields *results* which were *reviewed and evaluated* in terms of effectiveness by the subcommittee and the reviewing and coordinating committee. The determination of the coordinating committee influenced *program* or *objective changes*. This aspect is dependent on whether the results indicate that the desired behavior had been elicited. In the case under consideration at Pike County High School, the drug abuse problem was effectively eliminated.

Conclusion

There is great promise in student committees functioning on an "ad hoc" basis to solve school problems such as the one described above. If all schools tapped this great reservoir of student power, initiative, and productivity, the yield would be astonishing. It is amazing what students can do. Given the chance, the voice, the motivation, and the status, students can use their wealth of energy to ameliorate the worst of situations.

Handling Drug Use in Schools

Loren L. Hoch
Janice Olszowy

Use or abuse of alcohol, tobacco, and other drugs is a continuing problem for school administrators. A written policy covering such actions goes a long way toward simplifying the problem, state these authors as they make their case for such a policy.

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS continue to be confronted with the problem of drugs, including alcohol and tobacco, in the schools today. Although the incidence of drug abuse to the point of serious impairment of normal routines during the school day appears to be declining, the overall problem remains.

The authors' thesis for this article is that the prompt, fair handling of students involved in the use and abuse of drugs in the school setting is effective in altering the behavior of students. Boards of education, school administrators, teachers, and counselors need to jointly establish policies related to drugs and students.

Questions To Consider

How do the members of your school staff react to specific problems of use and abuse of drugs in the school? Is there a clear understanding of what is expected of the classroom teacher, the counselors, the principal, the custodian, and other school personnel who come into contact with students? Are there written guidelines through which students and school personnel are clearly informed of expected behavior and of the likely penalties if students are involved in the passing, using, or

Loren L. Hoch is professor of education and Janice Olszowy is a doctoral student at The University of Akron, Ohio.

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possessing of any substance of potential use or abuse? Is the only expectation of teachers and counselors that they report specific cases to the school disciplinarian?

What Would You Do?

Consider the following true drug-related situations and decide how you as the school administrator would handle the problems:

Susan

Susan, an honor student at a suburban junior high school, has been caught smoking marijuana on the school grounds. Susan has no previous discipline record in the school file and has been a model student throughout her two years at the junior high school. When confronted by the principal, Susan admits quickly that she was in fact smoking marijuana. She tearfully tells the principal that she has only been smoking marijuana recently because the boy she is dating had wanted her to just "try some." Susan continues to explain that her boyfriend buys the marijuana from a student in the school.

Larry

Larry, an eleventh grade student in a small high school in a rural school system, is suspected by his social studies teacher of selling pills during school hours. The social studies teacher has witnessed one sale to other students. Upon further investigation by the principal, Larry admits to his involvement in the sale of illegal drugs. Larry relates how he has acquired the pills from a prominent leader in the small community. Larry states that he has not been using the pills himself, but is selling them to obtain money.

Resolution

The school administrators who were faced with the decision of what to do in these situations were able to follow the written public policies of their school system in both cases.

In the first situation, the administrator made a positive identification of the substance with the help of the local police department to determine that it was in fact marijuana. Susan's parents were notified as well as the superintendent of the school system, the pupil personnel office, the school counselor, and the local police. Susan was suspended from school for three days, and seven days of suspension were held in abeyance dependent upon Susan's desire and ability to stop smoking marijuana. The counselor discussed the matter further with Susan to resolve the conflicts that Susan faced. The principal continued to iden-

tify those students who were selling and buying marijuana in the school.

In the second incident, the principal also suspended Larry from school and contacted his parents, the superintendent, school counselor, social studies teacher, and the local police. The principal handled the delicate matter of discussing the problem with the community resident responsible for supplying Larry. The supplier in this situation ceased his activity of selling illegal drugs after considering the consequences of the behavior. Larry was counseled by school personnel.

The Case for Written Policy

Written public policies regarding the use and abuse of drug substances, as in the above examples, will have several beneficial effects for the school and the community:

1. Input from community leaders and organizations as well as school personnel in formulating policies will result in the problem being accepted as a community problem rather than one just for the schools.
2. There is less of a tendency to be overly punitive with students when policies are clearly stated in advance. People think more rationally when not confronted with actual cases of drug abuse.
3. "Bad policy" is probably better than no policy. At least a stated policy can be understood and discussed, if not agreed to. Can we understand students', teachers', or the community's frustration in trying to change a rule that is not public, has not been explained beforehand, and seems to change every time it is applied?
4. Students are more likely to respect policies that have been worked out in advance, especially if student input was considered in making the policy.
5. School personnel will be on much stronger ground legally if they understand and follow guidelines developed in school policy statements. In some court decisions publicly developed and stated policies have the effect of law, in some cases even if they are not entirely consistent with state statutes on the matter.

Suggested Guidelines

If, as a school administrator, you are in a position to write a school drug policy or find that a review of the current policy is appropriate the following guidelines are suggested:

1. A drug policy should be in compliance with current federal and state laws. Laws and state statutes vary from state to state with

regard to the use, possession, and transfer of drugs. An understanding of the state law is vital in formulating a policy which remains consistent with the laws in existence.

2. An effective drug policy should be uniform throughout a school system. All schools and levels of schools—elementary, junior high, and high school—within a system should adhere to the same policy. In writing or reviewing the policy input from students, teachers, and administrators should be representative of all levels of schools.
3. Local police are charged with the enforcement of laws regarding drugs. Thus, the police can provide information for consideration in writing a policy and should be encouraged to offer their perspectives.
4. The drug policy that is developed should state specifically the behavior that constitutes a violation. For example, if smoking is defined as a violation the substance being smoked must be stated. Smoking tobacco and smoking marijuana describe two different violations that would prompt different actions and consequences.
5. The consequences of the violation should be described as concisely as possible. Consequences may include: suspension from school, suspension in school, a report to the police, a conference with the student's parents, and referral to the school counselor or a community agency.
6. Variance of degrees of consequences should be included. For example, smoking marijuana once may have a lesser consequence than repeated violations of smoking marijuana.

Drug Use and Abuse Policy

An example of an effective school policy for drug use and abuse follows. This policy may serve as a guide to a school system and its personnel who are writing a policy; however, it is not intended for exact use since different considerations may be necessary.

Students shall not consume, deliver, or have in their possession alcoholic beverages while in school or on school property or while attending a school activity. No student shall be on school grounds or attend a school activity while under the influence of alcohol. Violation of this policy will result in appropriate disciplinary action by way of suspension or expulsion.

In the event that a student sells, possesses, deals in, or delivers drugs on school property, in school or otherwise, or when attending or participating in school events, disciplinary action will be imposed, varying from suspension to expulsion, depending upon the nature of the offense. In addition, such activity will, in appropriate cases, result in the institution of legal proceedings which includes contacting the police and proper authorities. A student who

takes medicine prescribed by a physician is required to advise the principal so that the taking of medication by prescription will not be misunderstood.

Conclusion

The policy developed and implemented for drug use and abuse should be broad enough to allow flexibility but clear enough for students, teachers, and community members to understand and follow. Planning ahead for drug related situations prepares the administrator for action that is appropriate, fair, and clear to the student.

Conclusion

Most principals of small schools can't work any harder, so they must work smarter. Working smarter means capitalizing on strengths and motivating the potential of people resources at hand.

In an earlier article, Brimm and Hanson (p. 140) discussed strengths and weaknesses of the small school. In this final article, Pinsent highlights six significant categories of strength, while acknowledging that there will always be a need to discuss ways of improving the teaching/learning environment of small schools. To stimulate such discussion, Pinsent provides a stimulating list of practical suggestions.

What better motivation/expectation can the reader take from this publication than the conclusion selected by Pinsent: "It is not only possible that small schools can be good schools, but they have the potential to be among the best."

Develop Quality Programs Based on Strengths

Cyril M. Pinsent

SMALL SCHOOLS WILL always be with us, and unless we are convinced that they can produce a viable product we labor in vain. We must realize that small schools are not abridged editions of larger schools; we must desist in trying to adapt projects which appear to work in larger schools where support services and gadgetry proliferate; and, finally, we must avoid the temptation to scale down larger proposals to suit smaller schools. We have sufficient foundations of our own to make schools function efficiently.

Six Areas of Strength

It is not enough for those of us who believe in small schools to be cognizant of their strengths; we must make others responsive to them. Some persons have placed the strengths of small schools into six major categories—*administration, the teacher, the student, the community, guidance,* and *atmosphere.*

Administration

In the large high school it is essential to have a well-structured hierarchy: principal, vice principal, department heads, etc. The principal has difficulty knowing his staff and, therefore, has little time to know the student body. In a small school fewer rules and regulations are necessary and it is not unusual for the principal/vice principal to know the names of every student. Who can deny the merits of such a situation?

Teacher

The dedicated teacher in contact with fewer students has a greater opportunity to observe a young person grow in wisdom and stature. Smaller classes invariably mean fewer students and thus the teacher can enjoy the advantage of getting to know them. In teaching more than one subject to the students, the teacher can see more clearly their strengths and weaknesses. The teacher can get more involved in administrative affairs of the school and, therefore, become more receptive to supervision

Cyril M. Pinsent is superintendent of Bonavista-Trinity-Placentia Integrated School Board in Clarenville, Newfoundland.

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and change. Problems do not have as great a chance to gather momentum and are often solved at an early stage.

Student

With the explosion of knowledge that has taken place in the last two or three decades, our main tasks include teaching students to be able to read with understanding, discrimination, and retention; to reason logically and to express themselves clearly. Surely, specific knowledge, although important, is merely a by-product of this main attempt. We can achieve these goals in a small school.

But there is more to education than the acquisition of knowledge. In our small schools the competition for positions in clubs and on teams is not as great as in larger schools; as a result the average student can participate in an activity—in short, there are more occasions to get involved, to be a part of the school, to exhibit a greater responsibility for self-direction which builds greater confidence and self-esteem. If we picture the school as a micro-community, surely our graduates should have a well-developed concept of involvement in the community.

Community

During the past 10 years I have been active in consolidating schools in rural areas to the extent that I have been involved in closing more than 40 schools. It was during these stormy, boisterous sessions that one learned how much the school means to a community. It is really the community's identity. As a principal in a small town, I found support for the community school a valuable assistance in all my undertakings in making a strong, active institution of learning.

Guidance

In our most wishful moments we visualize the ultimate educational scene of Socrates and his students seated on opposite ends of a log. It has been said that such a scene suggests a "number of ideas; close contact—eye, voice, ear—between teachers and student; a sympathy between the two, comprising concern for a subject and mutual regard; a dialog rather than a dissertation, but one controlled by the teacher; an exploration of ideas not a catalog of facts." Is this not giving a sense of direction?

My premise is that the guidance counsellor should not be the safe repository of all problems of staff/student. In fact, in many of our schools we do not have persons hired as guidance counsellors. Instead, we have contact people on the staff—someone to whom the student can relate, talk, and in some cases follow as an example. I have seen more guidance in some small schools without guidance counsellors than I

have witnessed in larger schools where they have such people. This does not discount the value of guidance personnel, it merely points out that some schools can function smoothly without them.

Atmosphere

It is always risky dealing with "airy things" and atmosphere is one of those difficult-to-describe components. With fewer people the lines of communication do not tend to be so frequently overloaded. More involvement by students and teachers can create greater loyalty, more school spirit, and better morale. This means simply that in a small school the potential is there for it to become more humane and productive.

Practical Hints To Improve School

Like beauty, the strengths of small schools lie in the eyes of the beholder. It is readily agreed that small schools need to dress up their programs, to raise their expectations, and to improve their image. There will always be a need for those involved to meet to discuss ways of improving the teaching-learning environment of these institutions.

In preparing a list of suggestions to improve the program, I have attempted to be practical. For those who do not have to worry about budgetary restraints the list will be simple, maybe mundane. With sufficient funds we all can be creative and provide exciting leadership; with little money, on the other hand, we do have to try harder to provide quality education in our schools. Among the more frequently quoted proposals for broadening the horizons within the small school I have selected the following examples as being the most appropriate to the ordinary small school.

- Attract people who believe in small schools, who feel at home in teaching more than one discipline. Avoid those people who would go anywhere for the sake of obtaining employment.
- Define the limitations of your school. Your community should have a clear understanding of the goals that you have set for your school. Frequently, the goals of the community may differ from those that you have formulated. When this happens it is your responsibility to have dialog with the various publics.
- Employ itinerant teachers and/or specialists to enrich the program. We have guidance people, reading specialists, music teachers, physical education teachers, French teachers, and others who are involved in several schools which are too small to employ these people.

- Transport students to one center for some courses. For example, the provincial and federal governments jointly operate so-called vocational or trade schools where the various trades are taught. We have stu-

- Teach multiple courses in the same classroom. For example, with nine students in grade 10 electing to do physics and eight students in grade 11 requesting to do physics, it has been proven that both can be taught in the same classroom. Incidentally, one spinoff has been recognized—less spoon feeding and a greater tendency for students to work on their own.

- Beef up correspondence courses. In our province we have done very little in this regard but some provinces have well-developed programs. Recently, I was informed that the Ministry of Education in British Columbia has conceived of a plan to develop correspondence courses in both chemistry and physics to enable small secondary schools short of laboratory space or lacking teachers with teaching expertise in these major fields to provide a full range of science courses.

- Develop work-study programs. In one of our high schools located in a community of 2,500 people we have developed a very successful work-study program for our students who are experiencing difficulty with the academic program.

- Involve the community. As the oldest inhabited part of the New World colonized by European settlers, we have become extremely conscious of our heritage. Our customs have become almost obliterated by the input of the media from mainland sources. To counteract such erosion, we have introduced what we call "Newfoundlandia" whereby local people visit the school for regular activity periods to instruct students in forgotten crafts, Newfoundland recipes, fish processing by hand, dances, folklore, etc. It is interesting to watch the interaction of a young generation who cannot conceive of a world before TV talk with people who grew up without even the benefit of a radio. History does not seem so far away.

- Use semestering and the three-year schedule to provide for courses which can only be offered in alternate years.

- Offer summer school courses in low enrollment subjects. A number of schools could cooperate because during the summer months transportation would be easier to arrange.

- Use programmed learning materials for remedial or enrichment works. We have not been able to develop this technique because of

budgetary restraints common to small schools.

- Schedule Saturday seminars for exceptional children or as enriching experiences for groups who have common interests. Unfortunately, the cost of providing this service is established by collective bargaining restraints and, consequently, beyond our reach.

- Travel to other environments. Within 20 miles of the Newfoundland coast lies the French island of St. Pierre, which has retained the language and customs of France. Periodic visits to the small island are conducted by various schools to enable students to study the culture and the language of another country.

Again, being nearer to Europe than any other part of North America is certainly an advantage; e.g., Vancouver in our own country is just as far away as is Rome in Italy. Various travel cruises to Europe have been arranged to coincide with the Easter recess which is approximately 10 days.

Conclusion

The greatest resource in any school will be the adults who must make the school work. Their attitude will ultimately determine the effectiveness of such schools. If the administrators and teachers share the view that small schools are inferior to those found in large centers, increased financial support will not make the improvement that accompanies extra funds. The task of improving the quality of education in small schools lies with us. We acknowledge the weaknesses inherent in small schools but we are not going to let these weaknesses interfere with our efforts to accentuate our strengths. The comment made by D. F. Miller, Coordinator of the Oregon Small Schools Program, in the October 1971 *NASSP Bulletin* sums up my faith in our schools. "It is not only possible that small schools can be good schools, but they have the potential to be among the best."